



# HIGH SCHOOL GRAMMAR

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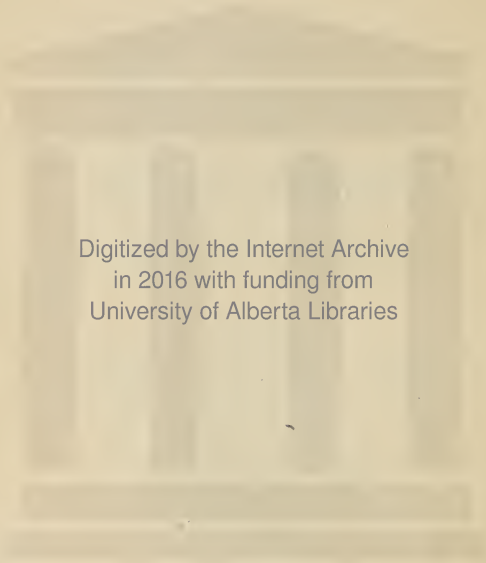


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THE  
HIGH SCHOOL  
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON

Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.

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BY

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INSPECTOR OF HIGH SCHOOLS FOR ONTARIO.

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# PREFACE.

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As is stated on the title-page, this grammar is based on Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*, the text book now in use in the Normal Schools of Ontario; but the *Essentials* has been remodelled and expanded to suit the requirements of High School pupils.

The chief features of the work are as follows:—

(1)—It has been constructed in accordance with the view, that “while English Grammar is a science which is capable of important practical applications, it has a distinct value as a means of mental training, to which the practical applications are subordinate in a High School course of study.” The older and still favoured view that English Grammar is the science that teaches the correct use of English is untenable. It unduly limits the domain of the subject by ignoring the educational importance of the reflective study of language—the first and most natural field for which is one's mother tongue. And further, it assumes that the mere study of the principles of grammar imparts the ability to speak and to write correctly. This ability, however, comes from fortunate associations and from being habituated to the right use of words by constant and careful drill. “The application of direct authority is the most efficient corrective. Grammar has its part to contribute, but rather in the higher than the lower steps of the work. One must be a somewhat reflective user of language to amend a point even here and there by grammatical reasons; and no man ever changed from being a bad speaker to being a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what he said.”

(2)—As English is an analytical language, its grammar is here treated from this point of view. The book, therefore, differs in many respects from most other text-books, which are modelled on the grammars of the synthetic languages. As far as possible, however, the terminology in common use has been retained.

(3)—The book is upon an historical basis. Only on this basis can the structure of the language be intelligently explained. “Old English,” as Mr. Skeat truly says, “is the right key to the understanding of Modern English, and those who will not use this key will never open the lock with all their fumbling.” But, as is proper in an elementary work, only such references are made to earlier stages of the language as are absolutely necessary for the proper explanation of modern forms and constructions.

(4)—Principles are established by the inductive method; and in the treatment of the subject generally, advantage is taken of the fact that English is the mother tongue of those who use the book.

(5)—Except in chapters II.-IV., there are no formally stated definitions, and even in these chapters what are called definitions are descriptions rather than definitions of the time-honoured but mind-benumbing

type. As far as possible pupils should be trained to enunciate grammatical principles in their own language.

(6)—While difficulties are explained where explanation is possible, the uncertainties of grammatical constructions are duly acknowledged. Those readers who expect to find here everything fixed by rule, will meet with disappointments ; but they will have an opportunity of learning the invaluable lesson, that human speech is by nature plastic, and that "the grammarian is simply a recorder and arranger of the usages of language, and in no degree a lawgiver ; hardly even an arbiter or a critic."

(7)—The lists of Classical and Old English root-words, and prefixes and suffixes, which constitute a leading feature of many grammars, are here omitted. For these the proper place is an etymological dictionary, and their meanings are best and most easily learned where the meanings of the words themselves are learned—in connection with the study of Reading, Literature, and Grammar. Chapter IV., which treats of Derivation and Composition, supplies all that is necessary for the intelligent study of this branch of etymology.

(8)—The exercises are chiefly of a reflective character, and, though more copious than those to be found in most other grammars, will need to be supplemented as occasion may arise. Exercises in false syntax have been omitted—not that these are of little value, but because they would make the book too bulky, and because good collections of such exercises are already in use in the schools. The examination questions appended to most of the chapters are intended to be merely suggestive : they are by no means exhaustive of the subject.

(9)—The text and exercises are each printed in two sizes of type ; the larger containing an elementary course ; and the smaller, supplementary matter of an advanced character, suitable for those who have completed the elementary course, and to be taken up in connection with the review thereof. The elementary course is intended to supply the wants of first form High School pupils, and the book as a whole covers the work which may be fairly expected from candidates for First-Class Certificates and for honour University Matriculation. The amount of the supplementary matter to be taken up by second form pupils, will, of course, depend upon their capabilities and the length of time at their disposal ; but, as a rule, the study of the less important historical portions should be reserved for third and fourth form classes.

(10)—The book has been prepared for the use of the pupil. This the teacher will soon discover if he attempts to use the text for ordinary catechetical purposes.

Many of the examples in the text and many of the exercises are taken from Maetznor's *English Grammar*, and a good many of the historical facts must be credited to Lounsbury's *History of the English Language*. It is not, however, possible to give a complete list of all the authorities that have been consulted in the preparation of the work. The author's thanks are due to a number of scholars who criticized portions of the text as it passed through the press, and in particular to Mr. J. W. Connor, B.A., of Berlin, Ont., who not only criticized the text but also supplied a good deal of material for some of the chapters.

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# ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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## CHAPTER I.

### INTRODUCTORY: LANGUAGE; THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE; GRAMMAR.

#### LANGUAGE.

1. All of us wish sometimes to communicate to others what we feel, or desire, or think.

Before the child is able to speak, his cry tells of his wants; his sob, of his grief; his scream, of his pain; his laughter, of his delight; and so on.

And, even when able to speak, he expresses his feelings and desires by some gesture, some posture of the body, some tone of the voice; he raises his eyebrows in surprise, leans forward in expectation, hisses in contempt, stamps his feet in anger, or brings his dog to him or drives him off, by the way he calls to him.

This is NATURAL LANGUAGE: it is our first mode of communicating with the outside world.

2. But feelings and desires are not the only things we wish to communicate. When quite young, we begin to acquire knowledge and to learn to think; and then we feel the need of a better mode of communication with others.

If, for instance, we formed a NOTION or idea—a picture in our minds—of evening, or of a good man, or of falling, we should not be able to express it by a tone, a look, a gesture, or a posture of the body.

And, again, if we wished to communicate to some one our THOUGHT, that the evening had been a fine one, or that the rain was falling, or that a good man is honest, we should be utterly unable to do so by natural language.

To communicate our notions and our thoughts, we need a better language; and, in some way or other—how, we cannot

exactly say—every race of mankind has become possessed of one. This is **SPEECH**, spoken language, or **LANGUAGE PROPER** (*language* is a word formed from the Latin *lingua*, “the tongue,” because the tongue is one of the chief organs of speech). Our language we learn by degrees; first, generally from our mothers—and hence it is called our **MOTHER-TONGUE**—and then from our other relations, our friends, our playmates, and our teachers. A good deal of it we learn also by reading; for, after a time, finding that he needed such an additional mode of communication, man invented the art of writing, and still later in his history, the art of printing.

Hence,

*Language proper consists of the spoken and written words we use to communicate our notions and our thoughts.*

## THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

### I.—Its Name, Origin, and Relationship.

3. There are very many different languages in the world, and the only way we can describe any one of them properly is to say that it is the language used in such and such a region, or by such and such a people.

We, therefore, describe our mother-tongue, the English language, as the language spoken in England, or by the people of England, and those who speak like them anywhere else in the world.

4. The people from whom our language gets its name are those living in England. Their forefathers came to that country from the northern shore of Germany during the fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries of the Christian era, and destroyed, or pushed back, the Celts who had lived there before, and who spoke a very different language, much like what Welsh now is. The invaders belonged to three different tribes, known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes (or Frisians); but all that history tells us of them leads us to believe that they were all of the Angle, or English, race; that, with some slight differences, they spoke the same language; and that the language of all alike is to be called English.

5. The English conquest of Britain was chiefly the work of the Angles and the Saxons; but as the former had a marked superiority in numbers and extent of territory, their name was given to the country possessed in common when the two tribes blended into one people. After the ninth century the name **ENGLISC** was given to the people and

the language, and ENGLA-LAND came to be applied later to all the country from the Channel to the Frith of Forth. But the Saxons seem to have been the first to come into contact with the native population; for the latter used one name—SAXONS—for all the invaders. Even to the present day, an Englishman is a Saxon to the Celtic inhabitants of the British Isles. On the other hand, the invaders spoke of the native population sometimes as Britons and sometimes as Welsh, that is, foreigners. (*Welsh* is the old English *walisc*, “foreign.”)

6. Because the English language was brought from Germany into England, being then like the other languages of that country, it is still like those now spoken in Germany, and is for this reason often called a GERMANIC or, which is the same thing, a TEUTONIC language.

7. Of the Teutonic languages there are three great divisions:—

a. LOW GERMAN, spoken by those who formerly lived along the *low-lying* shores of the Baltic and the North Sea.

b. HIGH GERMAN—Modern German—at first spoken only by those who lived in the *uplands* of Central and Southern Germany.

c. SCANDINAVIAN, spoken by the inhabitants of Iceland, Denmark, and Norway and Sweden (anciently called Scandinavia).

To the Low German division belong the following languages: Moeso-Gothic (spoken in ancient Dacia) and Old Saxon—both now extinct,—English, Dutch, Flemish, and Frisian (spoken between the Scheldt and Jutland, and on the islands near the shore).

8. By comparing the languages of Europe and Asia, scholars have been able to show that all the Teutonic languages, along with nearly all the others in Europe and some of the most important in Asia, form a great body of languages resembling one another, and hence called a family—the INDO-EUROPEAN (or the ARYAN) family.

9. The primitive tongue from which the various branches of the Indo-European family of languages have sprung, was spoken by a people, now named by scholars the Aryans, who seem to have inhabited the tablelands of central Asia and whose descendants have a wide geographical distribution from India westward to the Atlantic.

Although we have no historical records concerning these Aryans, a comparison of the grammars and vocabularies of many different languages has established beyond a doubt the fact that such a race and such

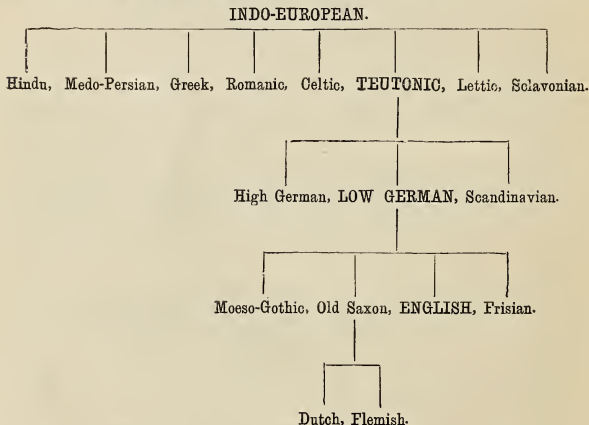
a language once existed; for it is evident that when two or more languages employ, as do the different dialects of the Indo-European sub-families, the same words to express the most familiar objects and the simplest ideas; and especially when their numerals, pronouns, prepositions and inflections are identical; they must have been originally the same, that is, they are derived from a common parent.

10. Languages may differ in PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, and GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE; and, according to the differences manifested in these respects, we define their relationship. The best test of kinship is the last; for pronunciation may change, and words are often borrowed from another language, but a language cannot give up its own grammar and adopt that of another.

11. We sum up, therefore, thus:

*English is a Teutonic language, belonging to the Indo-European family.*

The following diagram shows the position of English in reference to the other divisions of the family:—



Under Hindû are included Sanscrit (dead) and its descendants, Hindî, Hindustani, Bengali, Mahrattî; Cingalese (spoken in Ceylon), and Romany (the basis of the Gipsy dialects): under Medo-Persian (or Iranian), Zend (the old language of Persia), and Persian: under Greek, Ancient and Modern Greek: under Romanic, Latin, the old Italian dialects, and the Romance dialects which have sprung from Latin:—Italian, French, Spanish and Portuguese, Roumansch (spoken in Grisons, a canton of Switzerland), and Wallachian: under Celtic, Armorican (spoken in Brittany), Welsh, Irish, Gaelic (or Highland



Scotch), and Manx (spoken in the Isle of Man): under Lettic, old Prussian (dead), Modern Lettish (spoken chiefly in Kurland and Livonia), and Lithuanian (spoken chiefly in Kovno and Vilna): and under Slavonian, Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Bulgarian, and Illyrian.

## II.—Its Composite Character.

12. The language brought by the English into Britain was unmixed, that is, it contained few or no words derived from a foreign source. Modern English, however, is a mixed or composite tongue. The chief foreign element is the Romanic, by which we mean all the words drawn from Latin, the language of the ancient Romans. From this source we have two main classes of words: those that were introduced by the Norman-French when they conquered England, and those of later date, which are little altered in form from the original Latin. The Normans spoke a broken kind of Latin, and many of the words we obtained from them are thus often very much altered. These two elements—the pure English and the Romanic—constitute about ninety-five per cent. of our vocabulary. The other elements are words from other members of the Teutonic sub-family—Dutch, German and Danish; words from the Celtic languages; words from the Greek, and words from the languages of countries connected with England by trade, colonization, and so on.

## III.—Its Wide Spread.

13. The English also conquered and settled other countries, the southern part of Scotland, and, a good deal later, most of Ireland; and they have sent out colonies to all parts of the world, which, of course, carried their English language with them. Some of these colonies have become great nations; so especially those in North America have grown and increased until, together, they outnumber the English of England. Thus the English language is now used by many more people out of England than in it; but it still keeps everywhere its old name.

## IV.—Its Variety in Time.

14. Our English, however, is by no means the same language as has always gone by that name. The language first brought from Northern Germany to England was so different from ours that we should not understand it at all if we heard it spoken; and we cannot learn to read it without as much study as it costs us, for example, to learn to read French or German.

15. The reason is that every living language is all the time changing, so that the speech of each generation differs somewhat from that of the one before it. Some old words go out of use ; other new words come into use ; some change their meaning ; all, or almost all, change their pronunciation ; and the ways in which we put words together to express our thoughts become different by degrees. Such changes are sometimes very slow ; but, so long as a language is spoken by a people, they never cease. A thousand years hence, if it live so long, English will be so far unlike what it now is that we should probably not understand it without a good deal of trouble.

16. We have a very long and complete series of English works written by English authors, and going back as far as the ninth century.\* These enable us to find out how English has changed from time to time, and how these changes are connected with many important events in the social and political history of England.

17. The oldest English we know anything of, the English of King Alfred's time and thereabouts, we call OLD ENGLISH, or ANGLO-SAXON, to distinguish it from that of later times ; and the names EARLY ENGLISH and MIDDLE ENGLISH are, for the same reason, applied to the language of times between Alfred's and our own. MODERN ENGLISH, the language we speak, is regarded as dating from the beginning of the sixteenth century, no very important changes having taken place in it since that time.

18. It must not, however, be forgotten that, although differing from the English of Alfred's time in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, the English we speak is its lineal descendant ; for what grammar we have, and nearly all our most common and useful words, are purely English.

## OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH.

### I.—LANGUAGE OF THE ENGLISH.

19. From about the end of the sixth century, the English were settled in England as if it were their own ; and, though they were broken up into many communities speaking several dialects, their language was really the same. But the name Anglo-Saxon, which is sometimes given to it by modern philologists, is apt to mislead ; for it

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\* The works of earlier writers, *e.g.*, Cædmon, have been so altered by copyists that their language is virtually that of the ninth century.

was not used by the people themselves, nor is their language essentially different from ours.

20. Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, differs most strikingly from Modern English in being a **SYNTHETIC** language, whereas the latter is **ANALYTIC**. By a synthetic language we mean one which expresses by inflections, that is, by changes in the form of words, the modifications of meaning they undergo and their relations to one another in the sentence. On the other hand, an analytic language is one that expresses such relations and modifications by means of other words. In an analytic language the arrangement also of the words is of more importance than in a synthetic one; as, in the absence of inflections, it enables us to determine the relation of the words.

21. But Modern English is not purely analytic, for we still possess some inflections; it is, however, analytic in comparison with Old English, in which the nouns had several declensions, and at least five cases distinguished by different endings; the adjectives also were declined; the pronominal forms were more numerous; the verbs had a larger number of personal endings; and, as a necessary accompaniment of this fulness of inflection, the syntax was of a complicated nature. Nor, again, is Old English purely synthetic, for besides inflections we find prepositions and auxiliary words.

A comparison of the following extracts (in which the inflections are italicized) and their modern English equivalents illustrates many of the statements in this and the preceding paragraph:

#### OLD ENGLISH.

Thá ongan he leornigan on him  
selfum hú he thæt ríce thám un-  
rihtwísan cynninge aferran mihte,  
and on rihtgeleáfulra and on  
rihtwísra anwald gebringan.—  
*ÆLFRED'S Boethius.*

And we beóðath thæt man eard  
georne clánsian agynne, and mán-  
fulra dæda æghwær geswíce.—  
*CNUT'S Laws.*

#### MODERN ENGLISH.

Then began he to learn in him-  
self how he the kingdom *from* the  
unrighteous king might remove,  
and into the power *of* right-believ-  
ing and righteous (men) (might)  
bring.

And we bid that men to cleanse  
the earth earnestly begin, and *from*  
sinful deeds everywhere ("aye—  
where") cease.

22. The tendency to change from a synthetic to an analytic condition is natural to all European languages—French, for instance, is analytic compared with Latin—and the destruction of grammatical forms is hastened by the violent intermixture of two languages (as happened to English after the shock of the Norman Conquest), such an event being contrary to the order of nature.

23. The other most marked difference between Old English and Modern English is in the character of the vocabulary. From being one of the least mixed of languages, English has come to be one of the most **COMPOSITE** (For other differences, see I. 15).

We will now consider briefly how these and other changes have been produced in our language.

## II.—INFLUENCE OF CELTIC.

24. The Celts, or Britons, and the English were very different people. They were unlike in language and religion ; and, as during the period of Roman Supremacy (A D. 43-410), the Celts had acquired some of the civilization of their conquerors, they were also different in manners and customs. A long and bitter warfare, too, contributed to keep the races apart. The influence of Celtic upon English was, therefore, very slight, and did not affect the grammar ; nor do very many of our Celtic words go back to an early date. Most of those, indeed, that we find in the language before comparatively recent times, apparently went first into Latin or French, and then found their way into English. In the literature of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we meet more frequently with examples of Celtic words ; and a few, as,

bannock, bard, clan, claymore, slogan, pony, whiskey,  
are of still more recent introduction (see also I. 36. 3).

a. From the Celts the English adopted some names for natural objects, as mountains, rivers, etc., just as Canadians have adopted such Indian names as Toronto, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Ottawa. Examples are

Mendip, Malvern, Avon, Thames, Arran, Usk, Exe, Ouse, Ben, Dover, Kent, Derwent, Trent, Severn.

b. So, too, as Canadians have adopted from the Indians such names as tomahawk, squaw, moccasin, wigwam, the English adopted, probably from Celtic serfs, some names of common objects. Examples are

basket, breeches, clout, crock, darn, griddle, cradle, mattock, pool.

c. And further, as, in Canada, such names as Montreal, Quebec, Vaudreuil, Lachine, Portneuf, and so on, point to the French régime, so do a very few names of towns and engineering works adopted from the Celtic show, in their Latin origin, a trace of the Roman Supremacy. Such indirect importations from the Latin constitute the element in our language known as LATIN OF THE FIRST PERIOD. Examples are,

From *castra*, "a camp," Lancaster, Winchester, Leicester.

" *strata*, "a stone road," street, Stratford, Stratton.

" *portus*, "a harbor," Portsmouth, Porchester.

and derivatives from *colonia*, "a colony," pons, "a bridge," *vallum*, "a rampart," *fossa*, "a ditch," with probably a few other words.

## 1.I.—INFLUENCE OF THE LATIN OF THE ROMAN MISSIONARIES.

25. During the seventh century Latin civilization again influenced English, but this time directly ; for in A.D. 597, Roman missionaries began the work of christianizing England. Being few, they produced no effect upon the structure of the language, but they introduced a number of words either of genuine Latin or of Latinized Greek. These soon became completely naturalized. This element constitutes what is known as LATIN OF THE SECOND PERIOD.

a. At first the new words were chiefly connected with religion.

Examples of such words are

apostle, Old English	<i>apostol</i> ,	from Latinized Greek	<i>apostolus</i> ;
alms,	"	<i>aelmesse</i> ,	" " <i>elemosyna</i> ;
bishop,	"	<i>biscop</i> ,	" " <i>episcopus</i> ;
temple,	"	<i>tempel</i> ,	from Latin <i>templum</i> ;
priest,	"	<i>preost</i> ,	" <i>presbyter</i> ;
saint,	"	<i>sanct</i> ,	<i>sanctus</i> .

b. But, in the course of time, others were introduced to express natural objects and foreign articles.

Examples of such words are

pease, Old English,	<i>pisa</i> ,	from the Latin	<i>pisum</i> ;
mint,	"	<i>mynet</i> ,	" <i>moneta</i> ;
pepper,	"	<i>pipor</i> ,	" <i>piper</i> ;
turtle,	"	<i>turtle</i> ,	" <i>turtur</i> ;
pound,	"	<i>pund</i> ,	" <i>pondus</i> ;
candle,	"	<i>candel</i> ,	" <i>candela</i> .

#### IV.—INFLUENCE OF DANISH.

26. The end of the eighth century witnessed a southward migration of the Northmen, or Danes. Starting from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, they invaded the north and east coasts of the British Isles, and the country which was afterwards called Normandy. In the ninth century they settled in the north and east of England, and gradually acquired a good deal of political power. As they spoke Scandinavian dialects of the Teutonic sub-family, and as their habits were much the same as those of the English had been, they readily coalesced with the inhabitants, giving up most of their own language, and adopting English instead. In the course of this process, both the grammar and the vocabulary of English were affected.

a. As there was then in England no written standard of national speech, the intermixture of dialects did much to unsettle the inflections (I. 22) ; so that in the north and east, where many of the Danes had settled, most of the now lost inflections had disappeared by the end of the thirteenth century.

b. From Danish, English has obtained directly a good many geographical names. Examples are,

From *by*, "a town," Grimsby, Whitby, Derby, Tenby, (also by-law) ;  
 " *vig*, "a bay," Berwick, Greenwich, Sandwich, Wicklow ;  
 " *thorp*, "a village," Althorpe, Woolthorpe, Milnethorpe.

c. Some words in common use are also attributable to Danish ; but, as this language closely resembles Old English, it is not easy to determine them exactly. Besides, at first Danish affected the spoken language more than it did the written language.

The following are examples of words introduced about this time or possibly later ; for Scandinavian words became more common and easily discernible in the writings of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries :

aren, ("are"), till, (prep.), dash, dalry, fog, bilge, swain, raid.



## V.—ENGLISH AT THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

27. Under the influence of Roman civilization and literature, a cultivated book-speech had been produced, especially among the Angles of Northumbria. Owing, however, to the ravages of the Danes, most of the vernacular literature had disappeared; but with the political supremacy of Wessex, and under the fostering care of King Alfred, English literature again sprang into life, and the dialect of Wessex, or, as it is sometimes called, the Southern dialect, became the standard—the dialect in which the cultivated classes spoke and wrote. The language even then was “capable, not of poetry alone, but of eloquent prose, and it was equal to the task of translating the Latin authors, which were the literary models of the day.”

Into it, as we have seen, had been introduced a few Celtic and Scandinavian words, and a larger number of Latin ones; and, though still synthetic, it was beginning to show, especially in the north, its natural tendency to become analytic.

But, notwithstanding these changes, it was still, both in grammar and in vocabulary, essentially a Teutonic tongue.

## VI.—NORMAN FRENCH.

28. In the eleventh century the English were conquered by Northmen, or Normans, who had been settled in Normandy for about a hundred years (I. 26), and had adopted from the native population that corrupted form of Latin which we call French.\* The Latin which thus again came into indirect contact with English, is known as LATIN OF THE THIRD PERIOD.

29. For about three centuries hardly any coalescence of the Norman and the English race took place; and, as a consequence, we have the singular spectacle of two languages existing side by side without exerting much direct influence on each other, although in each case the indirect influence was great.

30. The Normans became in England a superior class, holding all offices of trust and the estates of the old English nobility. With them, of course, came their language; but, although they attempted to spread it throughout the island, it remained the language of the upper classes only. Until about the fourteenth century, French alone was spoken at court, in the Norman castles, in the law courts, in ecclesiastical assemblies, and in the national councils. With Latin, it was the language of literature, and, in the grammar-schools, boys randered into it their Latin authors.

31. English remained the language of the great mass of the people, but it suffered from the political and social degradation of those that

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\* The French are so-called from the Franks, a Germanic tribe, who, in the fifth century, conquered Gaul, now France, but then a Roman Province. The Franks gradually ceased to use their own tongue and adopted that employed by the more numerous and more cultivated inhabitants of the country, who, though chiefly of Celtic origin, then spoke a corrupted form of Latin. In like manner, the Normans, a horde of uncouth barbarians representing another branch of the Teutonic sub-family, forgot their Scandinavian (or Norse) vernacular, and, along with French manners, learning and polity, adopted French speech, retaining but few traces of their own. Norman-French is, therefore, mainly composed of four elements: the Celtic, the Latin, the German, and the Scandinavian (I. 36. 3).



used it. The most marked effects produced on it by French did not show themselves fully till the fourteenth century; but a very early effect was to throw it into confusion. It did not wholly cease to be written, but it ceased to be the language of culture. The West-Saxon dialect fell to the level of the others, and the popular speech ran its course, unchecked by the conservative influence of a national literature. Confined, from generation to generation, to serfs and ploughmen, it underwent rapid grammatical changes. The people, being ignorant, corrupted it; each district had its own words, its own pronunciation, and its own grammatical forms. English again became dialectic, and each writer used the language of his own locality, uninfluenced by any standard of propriety.

32. The history of our language during the three centuries that followed the Conquest, is the history of the way in which the language of the majority gradually prevailed against that of the minority. The Northmen, who had become Frenchmen in France, became Englishmen in England; and, just as political events had led to the degradation of English, so did political events mainly lead to its gradual rise in importance. The loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Louis IX. and Henry III., prohibiting the subjects of the one from holding lands in the dominions of the other; the rebellion of the barons under Montfort, and the political events in the reign of King John, prevented any further influx of French-speaking foreigners, and led the continental French and the inhabitants of England to look upon each other more and more as different people. Besides, both Norman and Englishman found a common cause in resisting the absolutism of the king; while the wars of Edward III. produced a strong anti-French feeling among the population, and led to the formation of a national spirit and the coalescence of the races.

33. And as the races coalesced, so did the languages, Norman French degenerating into a mere provincial dialect, and finally ceasing to be spoken. In 1349 the use of French in the grammar-schools was no longer compulsory, and after 1362 the proceedings in the law courts were conducted in English—both evidences of the general adoption of the native tongue. Finally, towards the close of the fifteenth century, the laws enacted by Parliament were for the first time expressed in English, and the triumph of the popular speech was complete.

#### VII.—INFLUENCE OF NORMAN FRENCH.

34. But during the three centuries of struggle between the races, marked changes took place in the English language; and, when it emerged from “the Babel of dialects” of the fourteenth century, it was very different from the English of Alfred.

##### (a) *On the Grammar.*

35. The grammatical structure was somewhat affected; for the passage from the synthetic to the analytic condition was hastened. French itself was already fast losing the inflections it had inherited from the Latin; and, as we have seen (I. 31), the destruction of the standard literary language, combined with the ignorance of the great mass of the

people, was rapidly causing phonetic decay (that is, dropping and weakening of sounds), on the part of English itself. But, when in the beginning of the fourteenth century, English was inundated by French words, the inflections and vowel endings of both languages after being, in most cases, first weakened to *e*, were finally shed (IV. 45. *b* and *c*). The English inflections seldom suited the new words, and the French, who learned their English from conversation, not, as we do a foreign language, from grammars and exercise books, did not master all the distinctions, but confounded them with their own or dropped them altogether. When, however, a form was found common to both languages, as, for instance, *s*, the sign for the plural of nouns, it was retained. In this way, therefore, by the end of the fourteenth century, English words had become almost as bare of inflections as they now are.

The syntax of the language was scarcely, if at all, influenced, if we except the simplification of the order of words in a sentence. This, however, was really a result of the analytic condition; for, not possessing in themselves, the means of showing their relations, words naturally fell into the logical order (XVIII).

### (b) *On the Vocabulary.*

36. The vocabulary was largely affected. Soon after the Conquest, Old English ceased to be the language of culture, and, as a consequence, many of its literary terms, being no longer needed, went out of use. The first effect, therefore, was an enormous shrinkage of its vocabulary. For two centuries English and Norman French existed side by side, without the former taking words to any extent from the latter. The English adopted few words, simply because they needed few. But in the first half of the fourteenth century, a great change took place. Numerous French words were introduced by those native writers who for the first time translated into English French poems, romances, and religious works. The revival of English literature, conjoined to the effects of political and social changes (I. 32), helped to swell the number; and from the middle of the fourteenth century our vocabulary assumed the composite character, which is one of its most marked features. Its own literary terms being irrevocably gone, English thus repaired its loss, while it compensated for its original imperfections. This vast accession is known as *LATIN OF THE THIRD PERIOD*; and, as the Latin was indirectly introduced, in passing through French it often underwent great changes of form. Examples:

From the Latin	<i>dotare</i>	came	dower;	from	<i>æstimare</i>	came	aim;
"	<i>adamas</i>	"	diamond;	"	<i>caput</i>	"	chief;
"	<i>turris</i>	"	tower;	"	<i>fructus</i>	"	fruit;
"	<i>salvus</i>	"	safe;	"	<i>deliberare</i>	"	deliver;
"	<i>rabies</i>	"	rage;	"	<i>crassus</i>	"	gross;
"	<i>cantare</i>	"	chant;	"	<i>racemus</i>	"	raisin;
"	<i>judex</i>	"	judge;	"	<i>scandalum</i>	"	slander;
"	<i>exire</i>	"	issue;	"	<i>invidia</i>	"	envy.

The new words relate to war, feudalism, the chase, law, the church, cookery, dress, and the family, together with a large number of abstract terms. Besides these, many were introduced by foreign artisans who settled in England, by traders with the continent, by

scientific men, and by soldiers returned from the French wars. Of these words,

(1) Some supplied names for new things introduced by the Normans. Examples are

cherry, olive, palace, palmer, baron, assize, buckler, captain, scutcheon, warden, statute, mayor, pantry, chivalry, fealty, vassal, attorney, chancellor, friar, sermon, sausage, lace, veil.

(2) Some had the same meaning as some English words. As a result, either these drove out the English equivalents, as, for example, was the case with

<i>ikenned</i>	and conceived;	<i>vondinge</i>	and temptation;
<i>ariste</i>	“ resurrection;	<i>yeldinges</i>	“ trespasses;
<i>lihte</i>	“ descended;	<i>yelderes</i>	“ trespassers;
<i>steih</i>	“ ascended;	<i>imennesse</i>	“ communion;

and many others;

Or both English and Norman words were retained with a difference of meaning, thus helping to make our vocabulary rich in synonyms. Examples are

benediction	and blessing;	dame	and lady;
deliver	“ free;	gain	“ win;
terror	“ dread;	purchase	“ buy;
route	“ road;	humility	“ lowliness;
carpenter	“ wright;	sage	“ wise;
county	“ shire;	strange	“ uncouth;
iniquity	“ wickedness;	succour	“ help;
jollity	“ mirth;	trespass	“ sin.

Indeed, during the period in which both Norman-French and English were spoken in England, there came into use a duplicate system of words. To be intelligible to both the upper and the lower classes, it was felt to be a necessity at times to use the speech of both. This system is known as BILINGUALISM. Examples of such pairs, some of which are still retained, are

assemble	and meet;	acknowledge	and confess;
dissemble	“ cloak;	use	“ wont;
mirth	“ jollity;	will	“ testament.

(3) Some were not of Latin origin.

A few were Celtic, adopted from the old Gauls by their Roman conquerors, and in turn adopted by the Northmen. Examples are

bar, bribe, car, career, harness, picket, vassal.

A few were Germanic, adopted from the Franks, the German conquerors of the Roman Province of Gaul. Many of these also passed into English in a modified form. Examples are

bivouac, guardian, marshal, banner, hatchet, motley, seneschal.

And a few also were Scandinavian, from the original language of the Northmen themselves. Examples are

barbed, bet, brandish, frisk, flotsam, haul, jolly.

## (c) On Word-formation.

37. English word-formation was also markedly affected. Our present modes of derivation and composition are much restricted. Instead of forming new words from native roots when we wish to express a complete notion by a single word, we now resort to derivatives and compounds from foreign and, to us, unmeaning words.

(1) From the Old English *flōwan*, "to flow," seven derivatives were formed by the addition of various prefixes, but only one of them, *overflow*, survives. So also from *sittan*, "to sit," fifteen new verbs were formed, not one of which is to be found to-day. For them we use such expressions as *sit by*, *sit near*, and so on. Again, the prefix *with* could have been added to almost any Old English verb, and actually was to over thirty; but now, although we retain *withdraw*, *withhold*, and *withstand*, we have ceased to use *with* in derivation.

Some prefixes also have dropped wholly out of use: thus *to*, "apart," in the Old English, *to-torne*, "torn in pieces"; and *ymb-*, *umb-*, or *um*, "around," in the Old English, *umset*, "to beset," have wholly disappeared; while *wan*, "without," is confined to *wanton*, "without education."

Others, again, have been confounded with other prefixes: for example, *ge-thencan* has become *bethink*, and the Romanic *dis-* has almost driven out the Old English *mis-*: thus, *misbelieve* has become *disbelieve*; and so on with many others.

(2) English suffixes suffered in the same way. Many Old English suffixes are no longer used, or they exist in old words only: *-er*, *-ness*, *-ing*, *-y*, *-ish*, are about the only suffixes now available for forming new words.

Confusion with French suffixes took place also: thus, *-ster* was in Old English the fem. of *-er*, as, for instance, in *mas. brewer*, fem. *brewster*: in French, besides *mas.* gender nouns in *-er*, with feminines in *-ess*, there were masculines in *-stre*, with feminines in *-stresse*. As a result of confusion, the French *-stre* displaced the English fem. *-ster*, making the ending appear that of a *mas.* noun, and giving us a new fem. suffix in *-stress* (V. 27. f).

But these losses in derivational power have been abundantly supplied. New Romanic words have been introduced, and Romanic prefixes and suffixes have replaced the English ones. Functional interchange (IV. 17) has also largely counterbalanced the loss our language had sustained.

(3) In the composition of words also, the Conquest wrought great changes. Old English rivalled Modern German in the power of forming self-explaining compounds: thus, it expressed

by <i>treow-wyrhta</i> ,	"tree-wright,"	our <i>carpenter</i> ;
" <i>flæsch-mongere</i> ,"	"flesh-monger,"	" <i>butcher</i> ;
" <i>bóc-hús</i> "	"book-house,"	" <i>library</i> ;
" <i>leorning-cniht</i> ,"	"learning-youth,"	" <i>disciple</i> ;
" <i>mán-áth</i> ,"	"crime-oath,"	" <i>perjury</i> ;
" <i>dæd-bót</i> ,"	"deed-bettering,"	" <i>penance</i> .

and so on with hundreds of others. During the fourteenth century, many of these compounds were replaced, as we see by the above list, by equivalent, but, to the English, unmeaning, words taken from the French.

While it cannot be said that Modern English does not possess the power of forming self-explaining compounds, it may be said that the power is not exercised to the full: thus, for instance, not satisfied with *rock-oil* we have invented *petroleum*. It is probable, however, that, while by the modern process our words lose somewhat in picturesqueness, they gain a good deal in definiteness. Words formed like *petroleum* present to the mind but one idea, while the self-explaining compound conveys a meaning which might not be always suitable.

(d) *On Pronunciation.*

38. The sounds of the language and the pronunciation of pure English words were also affected. Not being able to pronounce the hard, harsh, aspirate and guttural sounds of Old English, the Normans softened and weakened them: thus,

*hláford*, *ceorl*, *Englisc*, *streccan*, *Cissanceaster*, *wecg*, *scyld*,  
became softened to

*lord*, *churl*, *English*, *stretch*, *Chichester*, *wedge*, *shield*.

Vowel sounds also were changed and confounded; and, as the distinct pronunciation of the vowel endings was essential to their preservation, thence ensued irregularity and final loss (I. 35).

As will be seen hereafter (XIX), to Norman-French we owe a few of our present sounds.

To this influence, we may attribute also the dualism or double forms of some words in English, the old hard form being retained with the new soft one. Examples are

*dyke* and *ditch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *wake* and *watch*,  
*drag* “ *draw*, *clot* “ *clod*, *wagon* “ *wain*.

The accentuation was also affected. In Old English the accent was upon the root-syllable; but, when we adopted words from Norman-French, they were at first taken with their native accentuation, which places the stress of the voice upon the last syllable.

Thus, according to the Teutonic mode, we have

*lóveliness*, *steádfastness*, *uprightness*, *Énglishman*; *náture*, *próstrate*,  
*théâtre*, *éssay*, *barrier*, *éffort*;

although the accentuation of the last six was for a time even in English,  
*náture*, *prostrate*, *théâtre*, *éssay*, *barriér*, *éffort*:

and the following are still accented according to the French mode:

*chagrín*, *routine*, *marine*, *cadét*, *augúst*, *estéém*.

In English poetry of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find some English words following the French mode: thus,

*begynnýng*, *endýng*, *gladnýsse*, *distrésse*.

Even in Chaucer's works the accentuation is still unsettled; for, although many of the borrowed words follow the English mode, we find many pronounced after both fashions: thus,

*príson* and *prísón*. *témpést* and *tempest*.



## VIII.—THE RISE OF MODERN ENGLISH.

39. From the eleventh to the fourteenth century, there was, in no sense, a national language. A number of dialects existed; but, while Latin and French held sway, these ceased to be the vehicles of the real literature of the land; and, when English again became the standard, it was an English differing from that of the local dialects (I. 31).

40. In the early part of the fourteenth century, there were three great dialects in England—the Northern, the Midland, and the Southern. Of these three, it was the Midland that became the language of literature. This dialect was spoken in a larger extent of territory than either of the others; it was the speech of the district in which were situated the two great universities of Oxford and Cambridge with their powerful linguistic influences; in grammatical character it was a compromise between the other two, and could, therefore, be readily adopted by those who spoke the others; and, in the fifteenth century it became the KING'S ENGLISH—the English spoken by the court, the clergy, the lawyers, and the gentlemen. To these influences was, in some measure, due the supremacy of the Midland dialect. But no really national language could exist until a literature had been created, which would be admired and studied by those who could read, and taken as a model by those who could write. This work was done by Chaucer, Wycliffe, and Gower, and more especially by Chaucer, the true father of English literature. Being conversant with court-life, and moving in the highest circles of English society, Chaucer wrote in the Midland dialect (or, strictly speaking, in the East-Midland, a variety of the Midland spoken in London and the neighboring counties north of it), and thus raised it at once to a position of superiority; for his writings were read and admired everywhere, and the dialect as written by him was adopted by his successors, and thus became the language of the nation.

## IX.—MODERN ENGLISH.

(a) *Grammar.*

41. From Chaucer's time the development of English has been orderly. The two counteracting influences of a national literature have been at work—the tendency to produce uniformity, and the tendency to arrest all change. From the conflict of these opposing forces, the grammatical forms of the language emerged almost in their present condition about the middle of the sixteenth century; the reduction to uniformity then effected has been undisturbed, and the anomalies that were then left, remain with us still.

(b) *Accessions to Vocabulary.*

42. But, although in Modern English there have been very few grammatical changes, the vocabulary has constantly widened; for new words are needed for new ideas. Such additions, however, have not materially affected the character and continuity of our speech.

## I.—FROM LATIN AND GREEK.

43. Owing to the literary barrenness of the fifteenth century, due mainly to the benumbing influence of the Wars of the Roses, our



vocabulary then received few accessions from any quarter; but even then the tendency to Latinize our speech showed itself occasionally in such pedantic words as

tenebrous, facundious, solacious, pulcritude, consuetude.

The Latinizing tendency received a new impulse from the Revival of Learning in the sixteenth century. The study of Latin then affected the style of English writers, whose influence on the language was now great, owing to the increased circulation of books after the invention of printing. The religious and political contentions of the sixteenth century contributed to the same end; for much study was given to writers whose style naturally tempted their readers to follow classical models and to use classical terms. And the growing importance of science and philosophy, and, until recently, the almost exclusive study of classics in the grammar-schools of England helped also to swell the classical, and especially the Latin, element in our language.

44. The Latin words introduced, after the Revival of Learning, constitute what is known as LATIN OF THE FOURTH PERIOD. Such words have been introduced in immense numbers, and are readily distinguishable from those indirectly introduced, by the comparatively slight changes they have undergone. Their naturalization has, indeed, generally affected the suffix only. Examples are

From *annales*, annals; from *innocentia*, innocence;  
 “ *audax*, audacious; “ *alacritas*, alacrity;  
 “ *penetratus*, penetrate; “ *celebratus*, celebrate.

From the Latin words thus introduced, and to a less extent from the Greek, we have an immense number of derivatives: thus from the stems of *pon-ere*, *plac-are*, *fer-re*, *spec-ere*, *mitt-ere*, *ten-ere*, *cap-ere*, *tend-ere*, *duc-ere*, *log-os*, *graph-ein* we have at least two thousand five-hundred derivatives. And, further, from one hundred and fifty Greek and Latin root-words, it has been calculated that we have nearly thirteen thousand words.

45. When, as is often the case, we have two derivatives from the same Latin root-word, one introduced directly and the other indirectly, the former is usually but little altered, and is akin in meaning to the Latin original; while the latter is, as we have seen (I. 36), often greatly altered and generally takes a meaning more remote: thus we have

from *traditio*, the dir. deriv. tradition. and the indir. deriv. treason;  
 “ *legalis*, “ legal, “ loyal;  
 “ *securus*, “ secure “ sure;  
 “ *factum*, “ fact, “ feat;  
 “ *pauper*, “ pauper, “ poor;  
 “ *pungens*, “ pungent “ poignant;  
 “ *redemptio*, “ redemption, “ ransom;  
 “ *triumphus*, “ triumph, “ trump.

46. This great influence of Latin lasted from the time of Henry VIII., till the reign of Charles II., when it received a check from the incoming of French tastes, fashions, and habits of thought.

A great many, however, of the words introduced by those who wrote in a stilted artificial style during the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., and

Charles I., and even later, were confined to the written language, and were never adopted into general use. Examples are  
 sufflamine, muliebrosity, deturpated, ludibundness, sanguinolency.

47. Since the Revival of Learning, many Greek words also have been introduced. These are chiefly scientific terms, and are, many of them, compounds with *o* as a connecting vowel. Examples are

philosophy, photograph, hippodrome, aeronaut; paralysis, ozone, theism, panic, distich, chyme, miasma.

48. For literary and scientific purposes, words are continually being coined from Latin and Greek roots, but in literature the tendency of modern writers, as, for example, Tennyson, is to employ, when possible, words of purely English origin.

## II.—FROM OTHER ROMANIC LANGUAGES.

49. The other Romanic languages also have contributed to our vocabulary. During the latter half of the sixteenth, and the first half of the seventeenth century, the Spanish language was widely known in England, owing mainly to the many points of contact, friendly and hostile, between the two countries.

Examples of words from this source are

Armada, desperado, tornado, flotilla, punctilio, cargo, cigar, alligator, cannibal, don, duenna, negro, mulatto.

A few words have also been introduced from the Portuguese. Examples are

albatross, caste, molasses, binnacle, lasso, palaver.

50. From the time of Chaucer till that of Milton, Italian exercised a powerful influence on our literature, but scarcely any upon the vocabulary. During the reigns of Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and Mary, it was well known to English courtiers; and the English authors of the time, who translated Italian works, copied some of the peculiarities of the writers. The study of Italian architecture and of the fine arts, and the importations of Italian manufactures contributed also somewhat to our vocabulary. But the accessions from this source are not numerous. Examples are

miniature, balustrade, canto, cartoon, vermicelli, piano-forte, velvet, bandit, concert, madrigal, regatta, bust

51. Modern French, during the reign of Charles II., gave us a few words, and others have been introduced since. Examples are

chagrin, grimace, repartee, debut, dejeuner, elite, soiree, reveille, corps, tirailleur, douceur, personnel, precis.

## III.—FROM OTHER TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

52. Other Teutonic languages also have contributed a few.

During the seventeenth century there were close political and commercial relations between England and Holland; and, as the Dutch were then the carriers of Europe, a number of trading and nautical terms were introduced into English. Examples are

taffrail, dock, reef, buoy, skipper, sloop, yacht,

53. From Modern German we have received but few, chiefly because it was late in the field of literature, science, and art. Examples are cobalt, feldspar, waltz, plunder, swindler, meerschaum, quartz.

IV.—FROM VARIOUS SOURCES OF MINOR IMPORTANCE.

54. But “every country in the world seems to have brought its verbal manufactures to the intellectual market of England. Travel, commerce, war, literature, science, art, have brought us words, many of which are completely naturalized.”

The following are examples of words belonging to such miscellaneous elements :

ARABIC : alchemy, alcohol, algebra, almanack, assassin, sofa.

PERSIAN : curry, chess, hookah, jackal, caravan, shawl.

HINDU : thug, loot, shampoo, sugar, coolie, toddy, cashmere.

HEBREW : ameh, cherub, jubilee, leviathan, sabbath, seraph.

AMERICAN LANGUAGES : guano, condor, hominy, hammock, squaw, wigwam.

CHINESE : bohea, junk, tea, congou, nankeen, typhoon.

MALAY : bamboo, bantam, gong, rattan, sago.

TURKISH : bey, caftan, fez, janizary, ottoman, shagreen.

POLYNESIAN LANGUAGES : boomerang, kangaroo, taboo, paramatta.

RUSSIAN : czar, drosky, knout, ukase, steppe.

HUNGARIAN : hussar, tokay.

TARTAR : cossack, khan, mammoth.

AFRICAN LANGUAGES : assegai, gorilla, kraal, canary, chimpanzee.

Some of these and other such words, though naturalized, have retained their original forms; but a great many have been altered by naturalization, or by indirect introduction.

55. And finally English contains words derived

a. From the names of persons. Examples are

Bacchanal, from *Bacchus*, god of wine; dahlia, from *Dahl*, a botanist; morphia, “ *Morpheus*, “ dreams; quixotic, “ *Don Quixote*; to boycott “ an Irish land-agent; to macadamize “ the inventor.

b. From the names of places. Examples are

indigo, from *India*; florin, from *Florence*; bayonet, from *Bayonne*; spaniel, “ *Spain*; cherry, “ *Cerasus*; tweed, “ the river.

c. From natural sounds. Examples are

hiss, buzz, bang, boom, crackle, whizz, whip-poor-will.

(c) *Changes in Sound.*

56. During the Modern English period our modes of pronunciation have gradually become uniform. In the Elizabethan period the Teutonic mode of accentuation began to become general, so that the tendency now is to throw the accent back from the last syllable.

One of the results of the invention of printing was to bring about uniformity of spelling. The result, however, has been gradually reached. By the end of the eighteenth century (Johnson's Dictionary was published in 1755), the present orthography was pretty nearly

established ; but, as changes in spelling have not kept pace with the changes in our pronunciation (I. 15) the spoken alphabet is often not the same as the printed one : hence have originated many of the anomalies in modern orthography (XIX).

(d) *The Purely English Element.*

I.—PERCENTAGE IN VOCABULARY.

57. If we examine an English dictionary, we find somewhat less than one-third of the words to be of purely English origin, by far the greater portion of the rest being of classical origin. But there is a wide difference between a language as represented in a dictionary, and the same language as spoken or written. The dictionary contains every word in the language, common and uncommon, whereas the English we speak and write consists of a small number of words, used over and over again. The best writers use probably less than ten thousand words each, while the language of ordinary cultured conversation contains from three to five thousand words. Estimating the proportion of the various elements of the language by the frequency of their occurrence, we find that about thirty-two out of every forty words, as they stand in our best writers, are of purely English origin. Thus, according to Professor Marsh, in every forty,

Chaucer (2 tales) contains.....	37	purely English words.
New Testament (13 chapters) contains	37	“ “
Sir T. More (7 folio pages)	34	“ “
Shakspeare (3 acts)	36	“ “
Milton's 'L'Allegro'	36	“ “
“ 'Paradise Lost'	32	“ “
Pope's 'Essay on Man'	32	“ “
Macaulay's 'Essay on Bacon'	30	“ “
Ruskin's 'Painters'	29	“ “
Tennyson's 'In Memoriam'	36	“ “

The rest in each case are chiefly of classical origin, with a small percentage of words belonging to minor elements.

But the ratio of the classical to the purely English elements varies according to the subject treated of, science and philosophy requiring a far higher percentage of words of classical origin than pure literature (1, 58, f).

II.—CHARACTERISTICS.

58. Our words of purely English origin may be recognized by different characteristics :

a. By their length. Most of our monosyllables are purely English : thus,

ear, day, eye, book, go, run, see, their, full, come.

b. By their grammatical functions.

Nearly all our numerals, conjunctions, and prepositions, and all our pronouns and demonstratives are purely English.

c. By their inflections. All nouns forming their plurals by vowel changes, or by *-en* and *-ves* (except *beeves*); all adjectives irregularly compared; and all strong and anomalous verbs are purely English.

d. By their components.

Most words with Old English prefixes and suffixes are purely English, except those containing *un-*, *-ness*, *-ful*, *-less*, which are often joined to stems from other sources. Examples are

*a-breast, be-fore, for-give, out-run, un-true, mis-hap ;*  
*hoy-hood, wor-ship, king-dom, kind-ness. lamb-kin.*

All words beginning with *kn*, *wh*, *wr*, or containing *ough*; together with most of those beginning with *w*, *y*, *ea*, or *sh* are purely English.

e. By their meaning.

During its period of inferiority (1. 31), English naturally retained the names of common natural objects belonging to the country, of such employments and artificial objects as belong to an uncultured people, of family relationships, of the various parts of the body, of common actions, emotions, and mental processes, of common attributes, and so on. Examples of each of them are

*ox, bird, oak, apple, stone, clay, rain, spring ; house, hearth,*  
*bed, wagon, smith, cloth, sell, cheap ; father, mother ; head,*  
*chin ; sit, stand ; love, hate, think, believe ; good, bad, long.*

f. Most specific words are purely English : most generic, are classical ; for such accompany classification and abstraction—processes characteristic of advanced stages of civilization.

Thus, of Teutonic origin are

*red, running, laughing, anger, theft ;*

and of classical are

*color, motion, sound, passion, crime.*

Hence our purely English words, being more definite, are more forcible, poetical, and picturesque than those of classical origin ; while the latter are indispensable for the purposes of philosophy and science.

### (e) *Varieties.*

59. There are considerable differences in the language even of English speakers at the present day.

Thus, almost every region has some peculiarities in the way in which its speakers use their English.

There are, for example the peculiarities of the English of Ireland, noticed by us in the Irish emigrant ; those of the English of Scotland, seen in the poetry of Burns, and the works of Scott ; and those of the negro English of the Southern United States. And, in general, an Englishman can tell an American, and an American can tell an Englishman, by the way he talks.



When these peculiarities amount to so much that they begin to interfere a little with our understanding the persons who have them, we say that such persons speak a DIALECT of English, rather than English itself.

60. Then there is also the difference between what we call "good English" and "bad English."

By good English we mean those words, and those meanings of them, and those ways of putting them together, which are used by the best speakers, the people of best education; everything which such people do not use, or which they use in another way, is bad English. Thus bad English is simply that which is not approved and accepted by good and careful speakers.

Every one who speaks any language "naturally," as we call it, has really learned it from those whom he heard speak around him as he was growing up. But he is liable to learn it ill, forming bad and incorrect habits of speech; or he may learn it from those who have themselves learned it ill, and may copy their bad habits. There are, indeed, very few who do not, while they are learning to speak, acquire some wrong ways, which they have to correct afterwards.

It is partly in order to help in this process of correcting bad habits, that the good and approved usages of a language are collected and set forth in a book which is called a "grammar."

### *REQUISITES OF GOOD ENGLISH.*

61. The usages that are entitled to be called good and approved must possess the following qualities:

a. They must be REPUTABLE, that is, the usages of writers and speakers of acknowledged standing.

b. They must also be NATIONAL, that is, the usages of the reputable writers and speakers of the nation, not of a few only.

c. They must also be RECENT, that is, the usages of the reputable writers and speakers of the nation at the present time.

The usages, therefore, that are good and approved vary according as the language changes.

62. If, therefore, we wish to write and to speak our language with PURITY, that is, to speak good English, we must attend to the following conditions:

a. Our words must be approved English words, suitable for the occasion. This rule is violated by the use of

(1) Obsolete expressions: as,

behest, whenas, whilom, beholden, bewray, erst, hight;



- (2) Provincial, or slang expressions : as,  
skedaddle, dodge, transmogrify, you bet;

and such Americanisms as

guess, reckon, calculate, solid.

- (3) Technical terms in other than scientific speech or writings : as,  
monad, gaseity, prejudicate, apperception, precognition.

- (4) Unnecessary foreign words or phrases : as,  
delicatesse, fraicheur, tout-ensemble, opusculum.

- (5) Unnecessarily coined words : as,  
peccant, donate, concatenate, etymon, enthuse, disgustful.

Violations of this rule are called BARBARISMS.

b. Our words must be employed in the sense which good and approved usage has assigned to them. This rule is violated by

- (1) Neglect of the proper use of particles : as,

He is to be preferred before his sister,

instead of

He is to be preferred to his sister ;

They had no other object but to come,

instead of

They had no other object than to come,

or,

They had no object but to come.

- (2) Neglect to distinguish between synonyms (that is, words of nearly the same meaning), or between words of similar sounds : as,

I acquiesce with you that his character is undeniable,

instead of

I agree with you that his character is unimpeachable ;

and

He glorified in being, not the follower, but the friend,

instead of

He gloried in being, not the follower, but the friend.

- (3) Inconsistency or absurdity of expression, caused by carelessness or by confusion of ideas : as,

I have not wilfully committed a mistake,

instead of

I have not knowingly committed a mistake.

He stood prostrate at my feet,

instead of

He was (or fell) prostrate at my feet.

Violations of this rule are called IMPROPRIETIES.

c. The words we use must be put together in a sentence in a form that is English. This rule is violated by the use of

(1) Wrong grammatical forms, or false syntax.

(2) Constructions contrary to English idiom. Thus when we say

I have hunger,

instead of

I am hungry ;

we use a French idiom ; and though it is proper to say

Get thee gone,

we cannot say

Make thee gone.

Violations of this rule are called SOLECISMS.

63. The violations under a, b, and c are regarded as such, because they are contrary to good and approved usage.

Usage may eventually justify a barbarism, or even an impropriety or a solecism. The history of our language is, indeed, the history of barbarisms that have become good English words, of improprieties that have become proper, and of solecisms that have become idiomatic ; but when once the laws of a language have been established, as those of the English language now are, any change therein must certainly be slow.

#### X.—PERIODS IN THE GROWTH OF ENGLISH.

64. The history of the development of the English language has been divided into the following four periods, which, however, are not sharply defined ; the changes have been gradual, and the dates assigned must be regarded as merely approximate. The statement sums up also what we have learned in regard to the growth of our language :

a. OLD ENGLISH (A.D. 450-1100).—*During this period the language was highly inflectional or synthetic ; it contained almost no foreign elements ; and the spelling and the pronunciation varied in nearly every district. Towards the close of the period, the Wessex, or Southern dialect, became the literary standard, and the language began to show signs of becoming analytic.*

b. EARLY ENGLISH (A.D. 1100-1250).—*Ceasing, on the Norman invasion, to be used by the educated classes, English gradually underwent many changes in spelling, pronunciation, and grammar. From 1100 to 1150 the changes were chiefly orthographical, consisting of a general weakening of the endings of words, and thus leading to the numerous inflectional changes that afterwards took place. From 1150 to 1250 the influence of Norman French showed itself markedly in the vocabulary.*

c. MIDDLE ENGLISH (1250-1485).—*During this period the language gradually became markedly analytic : most of the older inflections of nouns and adjectives disappeared, the inflections of the verbs were much altered, and the New conjugation began to gain ground and to displace the Old. In the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, there was no generally adopted pronunciation of English. Chiefly through the influence of*

*Chaucer (1328-1400), the East-Midland dialect became the standard literary language of England, and spelling and pronunciation showed symptoms of becoming uniform.*

d. MODERN ENGLISH (1485 to the present).—*Since the invention of printing and the rise of a great national literature, few changes have taken place in English grammar ; but, to express our continually increasing stock of ideas, the vocabulary of the language has received large accessions from many sources, especially from the Latin. There are a still continuing development of the analytic stage, and a constant tendency towards regularity and uniformity ; so that forms that seem to be irregular are made regular or are thrust out of use. Since the sixteenth century great changes have taken place in our modes of pronunciation ; but the growth of national culture and the intermingling of people from various parts of the British Empire have tended to produce uniformity ; so that at present educated speakers of English differ very slightly in their modes of pronunciation in different localities. Our orthography, however, from being very lax, has become so rigidly fixed that, in many instances, we no longer attempt to harmonize the spelling with the pronunciation.*

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

65. The English language, as made the subject of a grammar, means the English of the present day, as used by good speakers and writers ; and English grammar is a description of the usages of the English language in this sense.

A description of one of the earlier forms of English (as the Old English, or the Middle English), or of one of the dialects of English (as the Scottish, or the Yorkshire, or the negro English), or of one of the forms of bad English (as the thieves' slang), would also be an English grammar, but in a different sense ; and we should not call it simply an English grammar, but should give it some different name which would tell precisely what it was.

66. A grammar which gives an outline of, and attempts to account for, the changes that have taken place in English is called an Historical English Grammar. The smaller print of the text of this grammar conveys, besides other matter, information of an elementary character in regard to these changes. Such information throws light on many of the anomalies of English grammar, and enables us to understand better what our language is and how it came to have its present form.

### The Office of Grammar.

67. Grammar does not at all make rules and laws for language ; it only reports the facts of good language in an orderly way, so that they may be easily referred to, or learned.

Nor is the study of the grammar of one's own native language by any means *necessary*, in order to correctness of speech. Most persons learn good English in the same way that they learn English at all,—namely, by hearing and reading; by hearing and imitating good speakers, by studying books written correctly and well, by correcting themselves and being corrected by others, and so on. But attention to the rules of good usage as laid down in grammars, with illustrations and practical exercises, often helps and hastens this process; and it is especially useful to those who have been unfortunate enough to learn at first a bad kind of English.

68. Then there are many other respects in which the study of grammar is useful.

The learning of language is made up of many different parts; and it is never finished. It begins in infancy, and lasts all our lives. The ablest and most learned are never done with adding to their knowledge, even of their own language, and to their power to use it.

At the very beginning of language-learning, we have to learn to understand the words which we hear others use. Then we learn to utter them ourselves, and to put them together correctly—that is, in the same way that others do—in order to express our thoughts and feelings. A little later, we have to learn to understand them as they are put before our eyes, written or printed; and then to make them in the same way,—that is, to read and spell and write: and this also correctly, or as other people do. But then we want to use our English not only correctly, but well, so as to please and influence others. Many of us, too, want to learn other languages than English, languages which answer the same purposes as our own, but have other means of doing it. Or, we want to study some of the other forms of English, and to compare them with our own, so as to understand better what it is, and how it came to be what it is. Nor are we content with merely using language; we want to know something of what language is, and to realize what it is worth to us. The study of language has a great deal to tell us about the history of man, and of what he has done in the world. And as language is the instrument of the mind's operations, and the principal means by which they are disclosed, we cannot study the mind's workings and its nature without a thorough understanding of language.

69. For all these purposes, we need to have that sort of knowledge of language to which the study of grammar is the first step, and to which a study of the grammar of our own language is the easiest and the surest step.

## EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Give examples of the way in which the study of the English language can be made to illustrate and corroborate what we learn from English history.

2. Among the changes that have come over English, distinguish those which are due to tendencies inherent in all languages from those which have been brought about by external agencies.

3. What are the causes which have given rise to the greatest changes in English, and what are the causes which have tended most to fix and settle the language? Give illustrations.

4. When, and under what circumstances, did the principal foreign elements which enter into the composition of the English language, take their places in it?

5. Give, with dates, a pedigree of the English language which shall show from what sources it has been successively enriched.

6. Into what periods may the development of the English language be divided? Indicate the characteristic features of each.

7. Mr. Sweet characterizes three cardinal divisions in the development of English as periods of *full*, of *levelled*, and of *lost* inflections. Discuss his statement.

8. Explain clearly what is meant by calling English a composite language, and by saying that its grammar is neither borrowed nor mixed.

9. Illustrate fully the difference between an analytic and a synthetic language. Discuss the following law: "The earlier the stage, the fuller the inflections; and as languages become modern, they lose their inflections."

10. Justify the following: "If we were to describe the transition from the state language of the eleventh century to the court English of the fourteenth, it comes to this: *A French family settled in England and edited the English language.*"

11. Make a statement of the tendencies that are common to each period in the development of English, noting also those that are different.

12. What circumstances most commonly lead to the introduction of new words into a language? Instance words so imported into English.

13. What do you understand by the imperfect incorporation of words from a foreign language? Give the tests of naturalization, and illustrate by making a list of words (1) that are fully naturalized, (2) that are almost naturalized, and, (3) that as yet show no signs of naturalization.

14. To what languages and for what classes of words is English most indebted?

15. Enumerate, with examples, the parts of speech that are entirely or mostly of purely English origin.

16. Write a sentence which shall contain all the parts of speech, employing only words of purely English origin.

17. Give a list of words in common use derived directly and indirectly from the Celtic, Scandinavian, German, Latin, and Greek.

18. Compute the percentages of the different elements in the first two paragraphs of Chap. I. of this book.

19. Give classical generic names for the following specific things:

father, sun, horses, legs, black, whistling, two, sell.

20. Give purely English words descriptive of particular examples of the following generic terms :

impression, sensation, emotion, disposition, impulse, direction, progression, ascension, descent, region, existence, expansion, occupy, insert, curve, prominence, passage, inequality.

21. Give a list of examples of words radically the same, but of different forms, because entering our language through different channels.

22. Trace to their sources the following :

songster, Exeter, Pontefract, intercourse, commoner, Ballyshannon, worsted, Weston, Melrose, gruel, leopard, Whitby, Bermondsey, copse, chivalry, damage, penance, acquaint, diffuse, duck, amphitheatre, surprise, therefore, epilogue, this, pundit, fillibuster, sago, kangaroo, mustang, amen, hammock, vanguard, dunce, epicure, poor, mercy, soldier, tawdry, click.

23. Re-write the following passage, substituting words of purely English origin for those of Greek or Latin origin :

"The old man trusts wholly to slow contrivance and gradual progression. The youth expects to force his way by genius, vigor, and precipitance. The old man deifies prudence. The youth commits himself to magnanimity and chance. Age looks with anger on the temerity of youth, and youth with contempt on the scrupulosity of age."  
—Johnson.

24. Account for the Latinizing tendency (I. 43) that showed itself in our speech during the fifteenth century.

25. Show that the Latin of the fourth period often differs from the Latin of the other periods in respect to form, inflections, and meaning.

26. What can we infer from the likeness of the Eng. *house*, *free*, *man*, to the High German *haus*, *frei*, *mann* ? Why cannot we conclude that the English words are borrowed from German ?

27. Point out three important respects in which the English of Alfred's time (as shown in the extract in par. 21) differs from that of our own time.

28. Give examples of words that have come into English owing to the extension of the empire to India, America, and Australia, respectively.

29. What are the tests of good English ?

30. Give a list of the commonest causes of bad English.

31. Discuss the following definitions :

(1) LANGUAGE means inner life, or thought, taking an outward body.

(2) GRAMMAR means the rules which are discovered by common-sense applied to language.

32. Explain clearly the following statements :

(1) "When looked at from the purely grammatical point of view, the history of our language is little else than the history of corruptions."

(2) "As a mere instrument of expression, there is not the slightest question as to the immense superiority of the English of the nineteenth century over that of the ninth."

(3) "Other Teutonic languages may make use of Romanic words ; English must make use of them even in denouncing them."

(4) "The fact of English possessing, to a large extent, a double vocabulary—one composed of Teutonic, the other of Romanic words—has given a marked character to the literature of various epochs."

(5) "As political reasons have lifted our tongue into its present prominence, so in the future, to political reasons will it owe its progress or decay."

(6) "Our speech at present suffers, not from the agencies that are commonly supposed to be corrupting it, but from ignorant efforts made to preserve what is called its purity."



## CHAPTER II.

### THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS.

#### Various Kinds and Uses of Words.

1. Our language, like every other, is made up of words.

Thus, for example, we have **sun**, **moon**, **star**, which are the names of objects.

But such other words as **shines**, **moves**, **twinkle**, are not names; they are words which we put with names like those given above, to state or declare something about the objects to which the names belong ; as when we say

**The sun shines, The moon moves, The stars twinkle.**

The word **the**, again, in these sentences, is unlike the others ; it neither names anything nor declares anything ; it is never used except before a name, like **sun**, or **moon**, or **star**.

We may say, further,

**The golden sun shines brightly.**

Here **golden** and **brightly** are words of yet other kinds ; each may be used in its own ways, but not in those of the others. And so it is with all our words.

Each word has, therefore, its own particular part to play in the expression of our thoughts ; its own meanings ; and its own ways of being used with other words.

2. But not every word is different from all the rest in its uses. There are a great many words which we use in the same way as

**sun**, or **moon**, or **golden**, or **brightly**.

The words thus used alike we put together into classes, and we give each class a name.

#### Parts of Speech.

3. The classes into which our words are divided according to their uses, are called the PARTS OF SPEECH ; and every word, as having a certain kind of use or function, is called a PART OF SPEECH.

4. This name, "part of speech," given to a word, plainly implies that there is something incomplete about it; that it is not a whole, but must be joined with other "parts" in order to make a whole, or in order to be speech.

This is in fact the case; and the whole which these parts make up is the SENTENCE.

#### The Sentence.

5. All our speech, as we actually use it in talking or in writing, consists of sentences; we do not really say anything unless we make a sentence.

If, for example, we speak the words **sun, tree, ink, goodness, he**, we are only mentioning something; any one who hears us will naturally ask, "Well; what about it?"

So, if we say **shines, or is, or writes, or went**, the natural question is, "What shines?" and so on.

So, too, if we say **the, with, golden, brightly, away, or tall**.

But, if we say

**The sun shines, The tree is tall,**

**He writes with ink, or, They went away;**

we have thought something and said it; we have made up our mind to some purpose or other and told what it is; we have (as it is called) formed an opinion or judgment, and expressed it by a sentence.

6. Hence, in the sense thus explained, *A sentence is the expression of a judgment, that is, the statement in language, of a thought.*

Strictly speaking, this explanation is true of only one kind of sentence: the ASSERTIVE SENTENCE, as it is called, or that by which we assert or declare something to be so and so. There are two other kinds of sentence: one, the INTERROGATIVE (*interrogative* means "question-asking") by which we ask a question: thus,

**Does the sun shine?**

and the other, the IMPERATIVE (*imperative* means "command-giving") by which we give a command: thus,

**Shine out brightly, sun.**

But the assertive sentence is the regular and by far the most common one, and the other two will be best treated afterwards as variations of it.

**Kinds of words in a Sentence.**

7. We cannot produce a sentence by stringing together words of one sort only : thus,

**sun, man, rain ; shines, falls, went ; good, golden, bright.**

In order, then, to form a sentence we must use words of more than one kind.

Nor, again, can we take at haphazard words of different kinds, and make sentences of them : thus,

**The brightly sun shining over is me.**

But, properly fitted together, these words do express a thought: thus,

**The sun is shining brightly over me.**

For a sentence, there must, therefore, be not only words of more than one kind, but words of certain kinds fitted together in certain ways.

**Subject and Predicate.**

8. As the sentence is a combination of words by which we assert that something is true about something, there must be in every sentence two parts or members : one naming the thing (*thing* here means "whatever we can think about") about which we make an assertion, and one expressing what we assert of the thing named.

Thus, in the sentence

**The sun shines,**

the words **the sun** tell what we make an assertion about, and we assert about **the sun** that it **shines**: **shines** expresses what we assert to be true of the thing expressed by **the sun**.

So, too, in the sentence

**The sun does not shine,**

**does not shine** expresses what we assert to be true of the thing expressed by **the sun**.

9. These two necessary parts of the sentence we call the **SUBJECT** and the **PREDICATE** (*predicate* meaning "thing asserted").

We cannot, in the nature of things, make a complete sentence without joining together a subject and a predicate

But a sentence need not contain more than two words, one for each of the two parts. Thus,

**Gold glitters ; Horses run ; Paper burns ; George reads ;**  
are so many complete sentences, the former word in each being its subject, and the latter its predicate.

10. On the other hand, we may use two, or three, or many words in naming and describing the thing about which we are going to make an assertion, and as many more in making the assertion ; and the sentence may still be divided into the same two parts. Thus, in .

**My father's beautiful black horses run every day down the  
hill to the brook for water,**

the first five words are the subject, because all of them together name that about which the assertion is made ; and the other eleven words are the predicate, because all together form the assertion, telling what is done by the horses we have described.

11. We may, therefore, sum up as follows what we have learned about the sentence :

*A sentence is composed of two parts : (1) the subject, signifying that about which the assertion is made ; and (2) the predicate, signifying that which is asserted of the subject.*

We shall now see what kinds of words, that is, what parts of speech, are put together thus to form the simplest sentence, the sentence composed of only two words.

### The Verb.

12. A word that can be used as

**shines, glitters, run, burns, reads,**

are used in the sentences given above (II. 8 and 9), is called a **VERB** (*verb* means "word"; this part of speech having been looked upon as the chief word in the sentence).

Now, since these words are predicates, and since a predicate expresses what we assert of the subject (II. 8), a verb in such sentences is a word that asserts. Hence, any word that asserts is a verb.

A predicate, however, may consist of more than one word (II. 10). Thus, instead of

**The sun shines.**

we may say

**The sun is shining, or**  
**The sun is brilliant, or**  
**The sun sends down rays ;**

and so on.

But in these sentences there can be no assertion without **is**, or **sends** ; for a word like **shining, brilliant, down, or rays**, cannot make an assertion without a word added like **is** or **sends**. In such sentences, then, the essential parts of the predicates, that is, the parts by means of which we make our assertions about the subjects, are **is** and **sends** : **is** and **sends** are, therefore, verbs.

And so, because the verb forms either the predicate, or the essential part of the predicate, we cannot describe a verb truly except by saying that it is a kind of word which goes with the name of something to assert, or to help to assert, something about it ; that is, to form, or to help to form, the predicate.

And, of however many words a predicate may consist—as in **run every day down the hill to the brook for water**—it must always have in it, as its essential part, a verb, as **run**, simply because a verb is a word without which there can be no assertion.

13. We may, therefore, express, as follows, in a brief, plain manner, exactly what we mean in Grammar by the term *verb* ; that is, we may give the DEFINITION of the verb :

*A verb is a word by means of which we can make an assertion, and, hence, that can stand alone, or with other words, as the predicate of a sentence.*

#### **Bare and Complete Predicates.**

14. When a predicate is composed of two or more words, we call the simple verb in it the BARE predicate, and this along with the rest, the COMPLETE predicate.

We shall, also, see hereafter that some verbs, such as **be** and **become**, are very rarely used alone as predicate, but are made complete predicates by other words added to them, which are called their COMPLEMENT (that is, “completing part”). Thus, in

**He is wise, and He becomes wise,**  
**wise** is the complement ; and there could in neither sentence be a complete assertion without **wise** or some word used like it.

And there are, of course, no verbs that may not take a complement of some kind.

### The Noun.

15. The other words in the sentences in par. 9—namely, **gold, horses, paper, George**—are, each of them, what is called a **NOUN** (*noun* means simply “name”).

All these nouns are names of objects that we can perceive by the sense of sight. Others, as **sound, noise, thunder, odor**, are names of things which we can perceive by other senses. Yet others, as **mind, life**, are names of things which we can only think about. Others, still, as **height, roundness, beauty, courage**, are names of the qualities of objects. There are many different classes of nouns, but they are all alike names, and they can all be used as subject of a sentence.

16. Thus we have the definition :

*A noun is the name of anything, a word that can stand, alone or with other words, as subject of a sentence.*

### The Pronoun.

17. But while a verb is the only kind of word, or part of speech, that can be used as predicate of a sentence, a noun is not the only one that can be used as subject.

In the sentences,

**I stand, You are wise, They wrote,**

**I, you, and they** are subjects; and these are words of so peculiar a kind that they are not called nouns, but are made a class, or part of speech, by themselves, and are called **PRONOUNS** : other words of the class are

**we, thou, he, she, it, they, it, this, that, who.**

The word *pronoun* means “standing for a noun.” Such words are, in fact, a kind of additional set of names for objects, which may be used instead of their ordinary names, that is, instead of nouns. They do not precisely name objects; but they point them out where the circumstances show plainly enough what is referred to. Thus, instead of saying

**George reads diligently,**

we may say

**He reads diligently,**



if we have spoken before of **George** in a way that makes plain what **he** means ; as, for instance, when we say

**George is a good scholar ; he reads diligently.**

Or, speaking to George himself and not to any one else, we may say

**You read ;**

and in this case what **you** means is evident from the circumstances : and George may say, referring to himself,

**I read ;**

and in this case also the circumstances show what **I** means.

Again, if George says

**This is my father,**

**This** describes plainly enough the person whom George takes hold of, or towards whom he makes some gesture, or who is the only one near him.

We can, in this way, say **he, she, it, or this** of every single object that we can speak of by a noun ; to any one that we can speak to, we may say **you** ; and any one of them that can speak of itself may call itself **I**. In all cases, however, our knowledge of what these pronouns mean depends on the circumstances showing plainly what or who is referred to.

Thus the pronouns are a sort of universal names, or universal substitutes, under special circumstances, for ordinary names. Accordingly, while there are hundreds and thousands of ordinary names, or nouns, there are only a few of these substitutes ; but they are used oftener than any nouns ; for we do not care to repeat frequently nouns in the same sentence or in consecutive sentences, when a pronoun will show what we refer to.

18. Thus we have the definition :

*A pronoun is a word standing for a noun, and may, like a noun, be used as subject of a sentence.*

#### **Substantive Words.**

19. Both nouns and pronouns have other uses besides that of standing as subject ; these will be pointed out hereafter. It will also be shown that words which are generally other parts of speech are sometimes used as if they were nouns. Such a word is then said to be used **SUBSTANTIVELY** (*substantive* properly means "capable of expressing existence" ; when

used as a name, the term is applied to the part of speech that represents anything that exists, that is, to the noun).

The word **NOUN** was formerly much used, and is still sometimes used as a name for both nouns and adjectives, the former being distinguished as **NOUNS SUBSTANTIVE**, or **SUBSTANTIVES**, and the latter as **NOUNS ADJECTIVE**, or **ADJECTIVES**.

20. These three parts of speech—the noun and pronoun on the one hand, and the verb on the other—are the principal, the independent, ones. They do not need to lean on anything else; they can form sentences without help from other parts of speech.

#### The Adjective.

21. Next we have to consider two other parts of speech which are of a different character; which do not by themselves, or directly, form either the subject or the predicate of a sentence.

The word **the** in

**The sun shines,**

is such a part of speech; it can be used with a noun only, to limit its application by distinguishing the particular object for which the noun stands. So also **many** and **eight** in

**Many men were there, Eight boys are here,**

are used with the nouns **men** and **boys** to limit their application by telling how many of each class of objects there are.

And again in

**The golden sun shines, We like ripe apples,**

**golden** and **ripe** are each added to a noun to describe the thing of which the noun is the name, by expressing some quality as belonging to it.

A word used like **the**, **many**, **eight**, **golden**, or **ripe**, is called an **ADJECTIVE** (*adjective* merely means something "added"—that is, added to a noun by way of limitation or description).

22. When, for instance, we speak of

**Tall stiff black hats,**

we first limit the general name **hats** to that class of hats that are **black**, then the name **black hats** to that class that are **stiff**, and then the name **stiff black hats** to that class that are **tall**; and we might, by putting **his** and **two** before the whole, reduce the still numerous class of **tall stiff black hats** to the two which some particular person owns.

Hence an adjective is said to **LIMIT** the application of a noun, or is called a **LIMITING** word.

But in

**His two tall stiff black hats,**

the adjectives **tall**, **stiff**, and **black** do more than merely limit the application of the noun **hats**: they add to its meaning by expressing the qualities of tallness, stiffness and blackness as belonging to the hats.

Hence, such adjectives are said to **QUALIFY**, that is, "express a quality of," the meaning of a noun, or are called **QUALIFYING** words.

An adjective, however, may describe the meaning of the noun without limiting its application: it may merely add to its meaning. Thus, when we say

**The golden sun,**

we do not distinguish the sun from other objects of the same name: we merely describe the object which the noun **sun** represents, by expressing a quality as belonging to it. So, too, when we say

**The mighty ocean, Mortal men, My wise father;**

the adjectives **mighty**, **mortal**, and **wise** merely describe the objects represented by the nouns.

It is customary for grammarians to say that an adjective **MODIFIES** a noun, that is, "changes somewhat its value"; for, as the adjective and its noun make but one meaning, the addition of the adjective changes the value of the noun, whether it adds to its meaning or merely limits its application.

23. Thus we have the definition:

*An adjective is a word used to modify a noun.*

#### **Predicate Adjective and Noun.**

24. No assertion or declaration is made by an adjective, any more than by a noun; a noun and an adjective joined together will never make a sentence; thus,

**Sun golden, stars shining, enemies beaten, man the.**

But we can make either an adjective or a noun a part of the assertion about a noun or pronoun, if we join the two together by a verb. The verb which we especially use for this purpose is **be**: thus, for example,

**The sun is golden, His stiff black hat was tall,  
We are beaten, We were Roman citizens.**

A noun or adjective which, in this way, by help of a verb, is made a part of the predicate or assertion about a subject, is a kind of complement (II. 14) and is called a **PREDICATE** noun or adjective. Thus used, the adjective merely adds to the meaning of the noun or pronoun about which the assertion is made.

An adjective used as predicate modifies a pronoun as freely as it modifies a noun : thus,

**We are beaten ; You are tall ; He is running.**

### **The Adverb.**

25. There is also another class of words, used to modify the other member of the simple sentence, the verb.

If we say

**The sun shines brightly, or shines now, or shines above,** the words **brightly, now, above,** tell something about the manner, or time, or place of the action expressed by **shines ;** they qualify or limit, in one way or another, the shining which we have asserted of the sun.

So in

**Horses run swiftly, George reads sometimes, He stands there,** the words **swiftly, sometimes, and there,** are used in the same way to define the action or condition asserted by the verb.

A word thus used is called an **ADVERB**, because it is *added* to a *verb* in much the same way and for the same purpose as the adjective is added to the noun.

But some adverbs are also capable of being used to modify adjectives : thus,

**A very cold day, A truly faithful friend, A possibly false report ;**

and some even modify another adverb : thus,

**Very brightly shining, Quite often seen, Exceedingly seldom.**

26. We have, then, the definition :

*An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or sometimes another adverb.*

27. The adjective and the adverb are thus the two parts of speech which are added to another word to modify it.

### **The Preposition.**

28. We noticed above only one of the uses of the noun or pronoun, namely, that of serving as subject of a sentence.

Now we have also to notice that a noun or pronoun may be used like an adjective to modify another noun, or like an adverb to modify a verb or an adjective, if it be connected with the word it is to modify, by a word like **of**, **to**, **from**, **in**, **with**, **by**, and so on. Thus,

**An emigrant from Ireland**

is the same as

**An Irish emigrant ;**

**He speaks with distinctness**

is the same as

**He speaks distinctly :**

and in

**Good for food, Faithful till death, Tired of walking,**

the modification of the adjective is of the same kind as would be made by an adverb (See also II. 45).

Such connecting words are called **PREPOSITIONS**. *Preposition* means "placed before"; and these words are, in fact, usually placed before the noun or pronoun which they are to connect to another word (just as they are often placed before a verb—and hence the name *preposition*—to make another verb, as in **withstand**, **outrun**, **underlie**).

29. Each preposition makes the noun or pronoun which it joins to another word, modify that other in some particular way; that is, it defines a certain kind of relation as existing between the notions expressed by the two words (*notion* means "any conception of the mind," as of an object itself, or of what it does, or of what quality it has). Thus, **of** generally shows possession, or connects the notion of a possessor with that of a thing possessed, as in

**The palace of the king :**

**by** shows the relation of nearness, as in

**He sits by me,**

or, **of** means, as in

**He lives by begging ;**

**from** shows the relation of removal, as in

**He went from home ;**

**under** and **over** show relations of place, as in

**The picture hangs under the ceiling, over the table :**

and so on.

In describing, generally, the duty of the preposition in a sentence, it is usual, for convenience' sake, to say that it shows the relation between words: what is meant, however, is that the notions (II. 29) expressed by the words are thus connected.

30. Thus we have the definition :

*A preposition is a word which joins a noun or pronoun to some other word, and shows the relation between the notions they express, thus giving the noun or pronoun the value of an adjective or an adverb.*

### The Conjunction.

31. But not only have we a class of words to join together other words ; we have also a class of words to join together sentences. Thus, in

**He went and I came,**

we join together the thoughts or judgments (II. 6) expressed by **He went** and **I came**, by means of **and** ; that is, we thus join together two sentences.

So, also, **but** connects the sentences in

**We spoke, but they said nothing.**

**And** and **but** in these sentences are called CONJUNCTIONS (*conjunction* means something that “*conjoins*, or joins together”): they join together different sentences ; and this is the proper and most customary use of conjunctions.

Sometimes, like **and** and **but** in these sentences, the conjunction does hardly more than add one sentence to another ; sometimes, however, it shows that the second sentence stands in a certain relation to the first : a relation the nature of which is defined, or made clear, by the conjunction. Thus, in

**She blushed because she was ashamed, and**

**She played while they danced ;**

**because** shows her shame to have been the *cause* of her blushing ; and **while** shows the dancing to have *accompanied* her playing ; and so with similar conjunctions (II. 47).

But, besides connecting different sentences, some of the most common conjunctions, especially **and**, are used to connect, in the same sentence, other combinations of words (not containing a subject and a predicate), called PHRASES (II. 45), that are



used in the same way in the sentence ; also single words that are used in the same way in the sentence : thus,

On the hills and in the valleys, lies the snow ;

A man of bad character but of great ability :

He and I came ; By and with their consent ;

A great and good man ; A proud though childlike form.

32. Thus we have the definition :

*A conjunction is a word used to join together sentences, or phrases or words used in the same way in a sentence.*

#### Classification of the Parts of Speech.

33. The seven kinds of words thus described and defined as the parts of speech, fall among themselves into three well-marked divisions :

1. The three independent parts of speech, the NOUN, the PRONOUN, and the VERB, capable of forming sentences without the others ;

2. The two modifiers, the ADJECTIVE and the ADVERB, always attached to some other word, which they limit or qualify ; and

3. The two connectives, the PREPOSITION and the CONJUNCTION, which join one word, or phrase, or sentence to another.

#### The Interjection.

34. But there is yet another class of words, used in exclamation, which are usually reckoned as a part of speech. Examples are

**Oh ! Ah ! Fie ! Pshaw ! Fudge ! Lo !**

These words, and words used like them, are called INTERJECTIONS. The name *interjection* signifies something that is "interjected," that is, "thrown into the midst of" something else ; and this something else is the sentence, as made up of the other parts of speech.

Calling them thus, then, implies what is really the case, that they are not parts of the sentence itself ; they are not put together with other parts to make up sentences. Hence, though it is proper enough, because convenient, to call interjections a part of speech, they are not so in the same sense as the others. Each interjection is, in a certain way, an undivided sentence, put in the language of feeling rather than in that of reason.

35. We add, then, the definition :

*An interjection is an exclamation, expressive of feeling ; it does not combine with other words to form a sentence, and so is not in the same sense as the rest a part of speech.*

#### **Peculiar Words and Classes of Words.**

36. Besides the eight classes of words into which we have divided speech, there are words and even classes of words of a peculiar nature. Thus, in

**There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin,**  
**there**, which is generally an adverb meaning “in that place,” is used as an almost meaningless introductory word to fill up the place left vacant by the transposed subject ; for it would seem strange to say in ordinary speech,

**Came to the beach a poor exile of Erin,**  
although this sentence contains all that is really necessary—a subject and predicate.

37. Or, again, in

**This is the man who came ;**  
**who** is a pronoun referring to **man**, while it is also a conjunctive word, joining the sentence of which it is the subject to the one going before ; **who** thus partakes of the natures of two parts of speech—the pronoun and the conjunction—and, therefore, belongs to a group of words called CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS. It will be seen afterwards that there are in our language several other groups of words which are used similarly to **who**, that is, which partake of the natures of two parts of speech.

One of these groups—the PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES—partakes of the nature of the pronoun and the adjective ; another—the INFINITIVES—of the nature of the verb and the noun ; another—the PARTICIPLES—of the nature of the verb and the adjective ; and yet another—the PRONOMINAL ADVERBS (including the CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS)—of the nature of the pronoun and the adverb.

38. Still further, the word **yes**, which we use in answer to a question, is itself equivalent to a sentence. Thus in answer to

**Has he gone ?**

**Yes** stands for **He has gone** ; that is, it is equivalent to a sentence.

39. Thus it will be found that nearly all the words that do not strictly belong to one or another of the eight parts of speech fall into one or another of three classes :

1. Words like **there**, whose usual force as ordinary parts of speech has been weakened, having each generally a peculiar use, and, in some cases, a mere shadow of a meaning.

2. Words like **who**, which partake of the natures of two parts of speech; and

3. A few words like **yes**, which are each equivalent to a complete sentence.

But, as the words belonging to each of these three classes generally resemble, or are connected with, one or more of the eight parts of speech, grammarians have considered it unnecessary to form separate classes for them. Their nature and uses will, therefore, be taken up fully in connection with those parts of speech which they most closely resemble.

#### Different Grammatical Values of the same Word.

40. The continual increase in the number of our ideas maintains a continual necessity for an enlargement of our vocabulary. We shall see hereafter that, besides introducing into our language completely new words for new ideas, we modify the meanings of old ones by various changes in their forms (III. and IV). In the meantime, however, we have to notice another way we have of enlarging our vocabulary.

In the sentence

**I have sold my silver watch for a piece of silver, with which I silver some counterfeit coin.**

the first **silver** is an adjective; the second, a noun; and the third, a verb. In the following, again,

**He had all but one, but that was very heavy; had he had but more time, he could have brought it too,**

the first **but** is a preposition; the second, a conjunction; and the third, an adverb. And so with very many other words.

In these sentences, both **silver** and **but** are different parts of speech, according as they are differently used; although, generally, **silver** is a noun, and **but** a conjunction.

Hence,

1. *A word does not belong exclusively to one class, although it may generally be used in this way; and*

2. *To determine to what class a word belongs, we must know how it is used.*

### Notional and Relational Words.

41. In the classification of words, besides the distinction of function, there is a distinction of SIGNIFICATION that calls for attention.

When we contrast

book, runs, great, justice, sleep, generalization, remarkably,  
with

by, with, a, for, when, yet, and, since, under, who, now, never,  
we feel that there is a wide difference between the characters of the two lists.

The words in the first list have meanings of their own, independently of other words with which they may be connected in sentences. Such words are called NOTIONAL, because they represent *notions* (II. 29). Each of the words in the second list, however, depends for its intelligibility on its *relation* to some notional word or words in the sentence to which it belongs. Such words are, consequently, known as RELATIONAL. Some of them, the personal pronouns, have a sort of borrowed notional meaning as soon as circumstances show us what they refer to: others, again, as *respect*, *regard*, are nouns which, having become part of relational phrases, have lost their notional meaning.

42. Almost all nouns are notional. Pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions are relational.

Verbs, adjectives, and adverbs include both classes. Thus, in

God is love,

is is purely relational; while in

God is,

is, expressing existence, is notional.

So, too, *will*, when a mere sign of futurity is relational; but, when a principal verb meaning "to be willing," it is notional; and so with most of the other auxiliaries.

Adjectives expressing quality, as, *good*, *intelligent*, are notional; whereas pronominal adjectives, as, *his*, *your*, *this*, *what*, *some*, *all*, are relational.

And, finally, adverbs like *foolishly*, *wrongly*, *spitefully*, are notional; while adverbs like *thus*, *when*, *whence*, *accordingly*, *there*, are relational.

43. But we must not regard this classification as being rigid or absolute. The meanings of words change with the growth of the language (I. 15), and the same word may be used in a number of different senses according as it may suit the convenience of the people who use it. Even notional words, therefore, are more or less notional, and relational words have an infinitely graduated scale of variation. We find, too, that notional words have often a tendency to become relational, and that the process is generally accompanied by a lightening of emphasis.

Thus, we have *respect* notional in

I have much *respect* for him,

and part of a relational phrase in

**There is doubt with respect to his meaning.**

Again, *shall*, originally meaning "to owe," and, therefore, notional, is now most frequently used as a mere tense-auxiliary in verb-phrases, and is, therefore, relational. In the following, however, *shall* seems to have a sense that lies between these extremes :

**If I say so, who shall dare to deny it?**

Many relational words, too, have a tendency to become weakened in meaning ; this process also is generally accompanied by a lightening of emphasis : thus, in

**The exile of Erin was there,**

there has a distinct relational force, meaning "in that place" ; whereas in

**There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin,**

it has, as has been shown (II. 36), a mere shadow of a meaning.

So, too, in

**The man and the woman were in the house,**

the has a distinct relational force, indicating a particular man and a particular woman. Contrast with this its weakened force in

**The moon is hid ; the night is still.**

44. Grammar deals mainly with the literary forms, functions, and relations of words ; but it will be seen that a knowledge of the preceding distinctions is often helpful to the proper understanding of many of its difficulties.

#### **Grammatical Values of Phrases.**

45. Thus far we have been dealing with the grammatical values of single words : we shall now see that, in a sentence, a group of words very often has the grammatical value of one word. Thus, instead of

**He sprang hastily from his grassy couch,**

we may say, with the same logical value (*logical* means "according to the true meaning"),

**He sprang in haste from his couch of grass.**

In the latter sentence, *in haste* and *of grass*, respectively, have the grammatical values (or, are the grammatical equivalents) of the adverb *hastily* and the adjective *grassy*.

The following contain other examples of groups of words, which, although they cannot be represented as above by single words, are, notwithstanding, similarly used (the grammatical value of each is added) :

The house on yonder hill is sold;	adjectival;
The house stands on yonder hill;	adverbial;
He wanted to go home;	substantive;
I shall be going;	verbal;
He will go by way of Toronto;	prepositional;
He as well as I will go;	conjunctive;
Ah me!	interjectional.

Groups of words used like those above, with the value of parts of speech, are called PHRASES.

46. We add, then, the definition :

*A phrase is a combination of two or more words (not including a subject and predicate) having in a sentence the value of a single word, or part of speech.*

#### Grammatical Values of Clauses.

47. Again, instead of

**The wealthy man rose on awaking,**

we may say, with the same logical value,

**The man who was wealthy rose when he awoke.**

In the latter sentence, **who was wealthy** and **when he awoke** have the logical and the grammatical values of the adjective **wealthy** and the adverbial phrase **on awaking**.

The following contain other examples of sentences which are similarly used, although they cannot in every case be represented, as above, by equivalent words or phrases, (the grammatical value of each is added) :

Each thought of the woman who loved him best;	adjectival;
---	-------------

The place where they lived knows them no more;	"
--	---

They trimmed the lamps as the sun went down;	adverbial;
--	------------

Yet, ere we part, one lesson I can leave you;	"
---	---

He little knew how much he wronged her;	substantive;
---	--------------

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.	"
---	---

Sentences used, like those above, with the value of parts of speech, are called CLAUSES (See also II. 53).



48. A clause is, therefore, like a phrase in being a combination of words that often has the value of a single word or part of speech ; but it differs from it in containing a subject and predicate, and so being really a sentence of itself.

### Classes of Sentences.

#### (a) ACCORDING TO FORM.

49. As noticed above (II. 6), we use, besides the ASSERTIVE sentence, two other main kinds, the INTERROGATIVE and the IMPERATIVE ; this classification being based on the *form* of sentence we use in expressing ourselves.

50. By an INTERROGATIVE sentence, we express a desire to know something. But instead of putting it in the form of a statement, "I desire to know," or, "I wish you to tell me, such and such a thing," we make known our desire by a peculiar form of sentence : usually by putting the subject noun or pronoun after the verb ; thus,

**Have you any fish ? Was John there ? Will she go ?**

There are also special classes of INTERROGATIVE words, pronouns, or adjectives, or adverbs, which have in themselves a question-asking meaning ; thus,

**Who was there ? By what way did he go ? Why did he come ?**

51. By an IMPERATIVE sentence we express our will or wish that a thing be so and so ; we give a command to somebody. This is done by using a certain form of the verb, hence called the IMPERATIVE MOOD or MODE ; thus,

**Give me the fish. Go away from here.**

#### (b) ACCORDING TO COMPOSITION.

52. There is another classification of sentences based upon their *composition*. A sentence which is made up of one subject and of one predicate, is called a SIMPLE sentence, however many words either of them may contain : thus,

**Horses run**

and

**My father's beautiful black horses run every day down the hill  
to the brook for water,**

are both simple sentences.

53. But, as we have seen (II. 31), we can, by the use of conjunctive words, put together simple sentences, each having its

own subject and predicate, and make of them a longer and more intricate sentence. Thus, for example, if we say

**I woke and I got up at once ;  
The sun was up, but it was hidden by clouds ;  
The bird was shot, or some one struck it ;**

each sentence, or clause (for any sentence which is joined with other sentences to make a larger sentence, is called a clause), though joined to another by a conjunctive word, has the value of a separate assertion in the larger sentence.

Such clauses are called **INDEPENDENT** (or **PRINCIPAL** ; that is, "of first rank"). With relation to one another, again, they are called **CO-ORDINATE** ; that is, "of equal *order* or rank." And a sentence made up, like those above, of two or more independent clauses is called a **COMPOUND** sentence.

54. If, on the other hand, we use the sentences given in par. 47, the combination is of a different kind. In

**Each thought of the woman who loved him best,**  
the only real assertion is **Each thought of the woman** ; the clause **who loved him best** has the value of an adjective qualifying **woman**. And so with the other sentences in the same paragraph.

When a clause is thus made to play the part of a single part of speech in another clause, it is said to be **DEPENDENT** on that other, or to be **SUBORDINATED** to it ; that is, to be "put in an *order* or rank below it" ; and it is called a **DEPENDENT** (or a **SUBORDINATE**) clause, the other clause being called (as in the case of a compound sentence) the **INDEPENDENT** or **PRINCIPAL** clause. And a sentence thus made up of one principal clause and one or more subordinate ones, is called a **COMPLEX** sentence : by this is meant that its parts are more "woven together" (*complex* means "woven together") than those of the **COMPOUND** sentence (*compound* means "placed together").

55. Sometimes, also, a compound sentence may be made by joining together, instead of simple sentences, complex ones, or simple and complex ones. Such a sentence is called **COMPOUND-COMPLEX**.

56. Occasionally in complex, compound, and compound-complex sentences, the conjunctive word is omitted. The omission does not, however, alter the character of the sentence. Thus,

**Men may live fools ; (but) fools they cannot die ;  
Rich and rare were the gems (that) she wore.**

## EXERCISES.

## §§ 8-14.

I. As a preliminary exercise, the sentences in A below are to be divided into subject and predicate. If either consists of more than one word, the bare subject and predicate should be separated from the complements; if written, the parts may be arranged thus:

The golden sun shone brilliantly above our heads.

sun

*Bare subject;*

The golden

*Subject complements;*

shone

*Bare predicate;*

brilliantly above our heads *Predicate complements.*

In order that the sentences may be properly divided, the words should, if necessary, be rearranged in the more usual order: thus,

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight

becomes

The glimmering landscape fades now on the sight.

## §§ 12-40.

II. As the pupil masters each definition, he is to classify the words in the sentences in A below as one or another of the eight parts of speech, giving also the definition or reason for it in his own language as well as in that of the book. When he has mastered § 40, the italicized words in B are to be taken up in the same way.

## A

1. Grace was in all her steps. 2. Roused at the sound, from lowly bed a captive feebly raised his head. 3. Oh! then and there was hurrying to and fro. 4. With weeping and with laughter still is the story told. 5. Soft and pale is the moon beam; moveless still is the grassy stream. 6. Pale grew thy cheek and cold. 7. What art can wash her guilt away? 8. Here to the houseless child of want my door is open still. 9. Lightly and brightly breaks away the morning from her mantle gray. 10. Around, in sympathetic mirth, its tricks the kitten tries. 11. No more to chiefs and ladies bright the harp of Tara swells. 12. In thy right hand lead with thee the mountain nymph, sweet Liberty.

## B

1. *Home* they brought her warrior dead. 2. *Farthest* from him is best. 3. *Hard* by a spreading lime-tree stood. 4. The *many* rend the skies with loud applause. 5. The paths of glory lead *but* to the grave. 6. *None but* the *brave* deserves the fair. 7. In Venice *but's* a traitor. 8. *Thank* me no *thankings*, nor *proud* me no *prouds*. *Grace* me no *graces*, nor *uncle* me no *uncles*. 9. *Past* hope I have lived, for my noonday is

*past.* 10. The cardinal is not my *better* in the field. 11. If thou *thou'st* him *some thrice*, it shall not be *amiss*. 12. *Certain* were *there* who swore the *truth* of this. 13. *If* me *no if's* and *but* me *no but's* 14. Drink, gentlemen, make *free*. 15. *Heavens!* how *unlike* their Belgic sires of *yore!* 16. The day *before* was rainy, and so was the day *after*. 17. Mark you his absolute *shall?* 18. "*No! no!*" says *aye*, and "*Twice away,*" says *stay*. 19. *Him* is the objective case of *he*. 20. He was struck *dumb*. 21. *To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine. 22. His years *but* young, *but* his experience old. 24. *Ill fares* the land, to hastening *ills* a prey.

III. Construct sentences to show the different grammatical values that may be assigned to the following words:—

**while, Berlin, post, preface, insult, pain, dream, book, greatest.**

IV. Especially should pupils be practised in making a bare sentence of two words a starting point, and filling it out by adding other parts of speech to its subject and predicate, defining, as in II., the character and purpose of each addition as made.

### §§ 45-56.

V. State the grammatical value of the phrases and clauses in C below, giving the definitions as in II.

VI. Classify in the same way the sentences in C according to form and structure.

VII. Classify also the clauses as principal or subordinate.

The exercises relating to clauses and sentences may thus be combined:

- (a) Believe not what the landsmen say,  
Who tempt with doubts thy constant mind.

A *complex imperative* sentence containing three clauses:

- (1) Believe not; *Principal imperative*;  
(2) what.....say *Substantive, subordinate to (1)*;  
(3) Who.....mind *Adjective, subordinate to (2)*;

- (b) We laughed in glee, but silence reigned.

A *compound assertive* sentence containing two clauses:

- (1) We.....glee *Principal assertive*;  
but *Conjunctive of (1) and (2)*;  
(2) silence reigned *Principal assertive, co-ordinate with (1)*.

Each clause may then be treated as in I.

The relations of the subordinate clauses should also be indicated by such pupils as have already some acquaintance with the subject: thus, *to substantive subordinate to (1)*, may be added *object of Believe*.

This exercise is known as ANALYSIS ("a loosening back"); it consists in dividing a sentence into its essential and complementary elements: these, as will be seen farther on, besides being of different kinds, often themselves admit of further analysis. It includes also a description of the conjunctive and interjectional elements.

VIII. Especially should pupils be exercised (as in II.) in filling out a bare sentence by adding phrases and clauses; also in expanding words into phrases and clauses, and phrases into clauses, and *vice versa*.

While it is necessary to use certain technical descriptive words in the exercises, freedom of expression should be cultivated as far as possible. To facilitate this, the descriptive parts of the exercises should be written on the right hand side of the page, where they may be extended if the unusual character of the expression to be described render this course desirable.

## C

1. How sleep the brave that sink to rest, by all their country's wishes blest! 2. O make her a grave where the sunbeams rest, when they promise a glorious morrow. 3. So Heaven decrees; with Heaven who can contest? 4. Green be the turf above them. 5. He that observeth the wind shall not sow; and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap. 6. When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake. 7. How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes deeds ill done. 8. We cannot perceive that the study of grammar makes the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society. 9. You all did see that, on the Lupercal, I thrice presented him a kingly crown, which he did thrice refuse. 10. Much pleased was he to find that, though on pleasure she was bent, she had a frugal mind.

## EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Show what purpose each of the parts of speech serves in the expression of thought.
2. HORNE TOOKE classifies words as (1) necessary and (2) convenient for abbreviation and despatch.

LATHAM classifies words as (1) nouns, (2) verbs, and (3) particles.

MORREL classifies words as (1) substantive, (2) attributive, (3) words that show relations between other words, and (4) words that show relations between assertions; describing the Interjection as an extra-grammatical utterance.

ANGUS classifies words as (1) appellative, (2) attributive, (3) relational (expressing relations between other words), and (4) emotional.

Classify the parts of speech according to each of these systems, explaining and criticizing the basis adopted.

3. "Each part of speech is what it is, either by virtue of the place it now occupies in the sentence; or else by virtue of an old habit which contracted its use to certain special positions." Illustrate this statement with reference to the following:

he, the, singing, what, yesterday, good, when, that, but.

4. Explain the names of the Parts of Speech and show how far these names express their real character.

5. As far as possible make two sets of definitions of the Parts of Speech according to (1) meaning and (2) function. State, with reasons, which mode of definition is preferable in practical etymology, and which is philosophically more correct.

6. Classify as relational or notional (§§ 41-44) the words in A, p. 49; also the italicized words in the following: (1) The liberal deviseth liberal *things*; (2) I *should* think so, (3) He drove the dagger *home*; (4) Discretion in speech is *more* than eloquence; (5) How do you do? (6) *Now* is the accepted time; (7) *Now*, Barabbas was a robber; (8) *More* men have shown themselves *more* truthful.

7. Form sentences containing the following words used notionally and relationally:

wise, become, more, will, some, should, thing, may, affair.

8. In what different senses is the term "part of speech" used?

9. Discuss the question as to whether the italicized part in each of the following sentences is a phrase: "I spoke of what you are talking about." "I asked from what place he came."

## CHAPTER III.

## INFLECTION.

1. We have now to notice certain changes of form which some of the parts of speech undergo, according to differences in their meaning, or differences in the connection in which they are used.

**Number.**

2. Let us take as examples the sentences

<b>The man learns,</b>	<b>I go,</b>
<b>The horse runs,</b>	<b>He was.</b>

Now, every one of these words may change its form a little, in order to mean something a little different from what it now means.

Thus, if we want to speak not of one **man** only, but of more than one, we alter the sound of the word (and hence also, the spelling), and say **men**.

If we want to speak of more than one **horse**, we add an **s**, thus making another syllable, and say **horses**.

If, instead of myself alone, I speak of a number of persons of whom I am one, I change **I** to **we**, and say **we go**. And in the same way we change **he** to **they**.

Here, then, is a set of changes in the form of nouns and pronouns, made in order to show a difference in the *number* of objects meant, whether a single one or more than one. Hence we call it a change for **NUMBER**; and we say that **man**, **horse**, **I** and **he** are of the **SINGULAR** number (*singular* means "single"), and that **men**, **horses**, **we**, and **they** are of the **PLURAL** number (*plural* means "more than one").

What is true of these nouns and pronouns is true also of nearly all the rest; we do not use precisely the same word when we mean one and when we mean more than one; that is to say, our nouns and pronouns in general have two number-forms, one singular and the other plural.



Other examples are

beauty, beauties ; ox, oxen ; foot, feet ; mouse, mice ; she or  
it, they ; this, these ; that, those.

3. But if in the sentences above we use the plural forms as subjects instead of the singular, we cannot always use the same forms of the verb as predicates : thus, compare

The man learns	with	The men learn ;
The horse runs	“	The horses run ;
He was	“	They were ;

although, in the remaining sentence, we say both

I go and we go.

This change in the verb, when it is made (and it is by *no* means always made), does not show a difference of meaning in the same sense as the change in the noun ; for we cannot really say that the act of learning or running, or the condition of being, is in itself different according as one person or thing, or more than one, take part in it. The change is, rather, a mere consequence of the change of meaning of the subjects. We say, therefore, that the verb, as well as the noun and pronoun, has sometimes two forms, one for use with a subject that is singular, and the other for use with a subject that is plural ; and these forms we call the singular and plural number-forms of the verb itself.

#### Government and Agreement.

4. And, as the distinction of the use of these forms depends, not on anything in the meaning of the verb itself, but only on the character of the subject, we speak of the subject, whether noun or pronoun, as directing or GOVERNING in the matter ; the subject being given, the verb is *compelled* to AGREE with it in respect to number.

These words, GOVERNMENT and AGREEMENT, are much used in grammar, and this is their simple meaning.

The word *government*, however, does not give a correct idea of the connection between words : they really fit into each other. In a building the shape of the window-frame as much determines the shape of the place it fits into, as the place it fits into determines the shape of the window-frame. So with grammatical constructions.

#### Person.

5. There is yet another matter in relation to which the terms government and agreement have to be used about the verb and its subject.

If we use as subjects the three pronouns **I, thou, he** (or **she** or **it**), the verb used with each is generally different : thus,

**I learn, thou learnest, he learns.**

Here, again, there is nothing changed in the action of *learning* signified by the verb ; the real change is only in the character of its subject. **I** is always used by a person speaking, to signify himself ; **thou**, to signify the person to whom he is speaking ; **he** (or **she** or **it**), to signify any person or thing spoken of. This difference in the pronouns is called a difference of **PERSON** ; and, in order to distinguish them from one another, we call **I** the pronoun of the **FIRST PERSON**, **thou** (or **you**) the pronoun of the **SECOND PERSON**, and **he** (or **she** or **it**) the pronoun of the **THIRD PERSON**.

6. Hence we say, as before, that the verb has sometimes three person-forms, for use with subjects of the first, second, and third persons respectively ; and these forms we call the first, second, and third persons of the verb itself.

And here, again, it is the subject that **GOVERNS**, or determines what the form of the verb must be, in respect to person as well as number ; the subject being given, the verb is made to agree with it in both person and number.

The Romans, many of whose grammatical terms we have adopted, thought it natural when speaking, to think *first* of themselves, *secondly* of the person spoken to, and *thirdly* of the person or thing spoken of.

7. A verb, we may notice here, is of the first or of the second person, only when its subject is a pronoun of the first or of the second person. Every noun has the verb in the third person : thus,

**John learns, The dog learns, The tree falls.**

#### **Tense.**

8. But the verb has also (as well as the noun) changes of form to mark real differences of meaning. The verbs **learns, runs, go** (in the sentences given as examples above) have to be altered if we wish to say that the actions of *learning, running, going* took place at some time in the past. In that case, we should say

**The man learned, The horse ran, I went.**

Thus we make by a change of form of the verb a distinction of the *time* of the action, as past or present. This is called a distinction of **TENSE** (*tense* means "time") ; and **learns, runs,**

**go** are said to be of the PRESENT tense, while **learned, ran, went** are said to be of the PAST tense.

The use of the different tenses of the verb depends, not like that of the different numbers and persons, on the character of any other word with which the verb is joined, but only on the difference of the meaning which we wish to express.

#### Mood.

9. One other difference of meaning is indicated (much less often, however,) by a change in the form of the verb. We say

**He was here,**

but **If he were here, I should be glad ;**

**He is angry,**

but **Though he be angry, he will not show it ;**

**He learns his lesson,**

but **Whether he learn it or not I do not care.**

This is called a distinction of MOOD (MOOD or MODE means manner') ; that is, of the *manner* of viewing the action expressed by the verb, whether as actual, or as doubtful, questionable, dependent on a condition. And **were, be, learn** in these sentences are said to be of the SUBJUNCTIVE mood (*subjunctive* means 'subjoined,' in the sense of 'dependent' ; that is, used in a subordinate or dependent sense), while, as distinguished from them, the forms **was, is, learns** are said to be of the INDICATIVE mood (*indicative* means simply 'pointing out' or stating).

The form of the verb used in imperative sentences is also called the IMPERATIVE mood.

#### Inflection and Conjugation.

10. This change in the form of any word, either to show changes of its own meaning or to adapt it to be used along with the different forms of other words, is called its INFLECTION (the name means 'bending into a different shape,' adaptation) ; and the word thus varied in form is said to be INFLECTED.

We have noticed now all the varieties of meaning and use for which the verb in our language is thus changed in form, or inflected. The inflection of a verb is usually called its CONJUGATION (the name means only a 'joining together' of the various verb-forms) ; and the verb is said to be CONJUGATED.

11. We sum this up by saying :

1. *Inflection is a change in the form of a word, depending on differences of its meaning and use.*

2. *The verb is inflected to show differences of person, of number, of tense, and of mood; and this inflection is called its Conjugation.*

#### Case.

12. But number is not the only inflection of nouns and pronouns. If John has or possesses a book, we call it

**John's book,**

adding an 's to the name to mark the person as being the possessor of the thing; and so we speak also of

**a man's deeds, men's souls, children's pleasures.**

This form of a noun, usually made by adding an 's, we are accustomed to call its POSSESSIVE CASE, because it most often shows possession.

13. The possessive case of a noun has very nearly the same meaning as the noun has with the preposition **of** before it; thus,

**men's souls,                      and    the souls of men ;**  
**children's pleasures, and    the pleasures of children ;**

that is to say, the same relation of one noun to another as is expressed by connecting it with that other by the preposition **of** (in one of its senses), may also often be expressed by putting the noun itself in the possessive case. And sundry other relations, which we now express only by means of other prepositions, were formerly expressed in our language, and are still expressed in other languages, by other cases, or changed forms of the noun.

14. Pronouns also, like nouns, have what is really a possessive case, although it is not formed as in nouns by adding 's: thus,

**he, his ; it, its ; who, whose ;**

and the case is sometimes formed still more differently: thus,

**I, my or mine ; she, her ; they, their.**

But most pronouns have another, a third, case-form; and this we have next to examine.

15. Both nouns and pronouns are capable of standing in another relation to a verb than that of its subject. If we say

**The man reads books. John drives a horse.**

**books** and **horse** are nouns, though neither of them is subject in its sentence. **Books**, for example, belongs to the predicate of the first sentence, because it is a part of what is asserted about **man**, the subject; the assertion is not that he reads simply, but that he reads books. The asserted general action of reading is limited, that is, is made more definite, by pointing out on what particular class of things it is exercised.

A word added to a verb in this way is called the **OBJECT** of the verb (*object* means “something *put in the way*”), because it signifies the person or thing that directly endures, or is the *object* of, the action expressed by the verb.

Some verbs, however, from the nature of their meaning do not usually admit of an object. Examples are

**walk, stand, rejoice, weep, go, fall.**

16. Now most of the pronouns have a different form when used as object of a verb from that which they have as subject. Thus, in

**I see him and he sees me,  
We love them and they love us,**

the pairs of words

<b>I</b>	and	<b>me,</b>	<b>he</b>	and	<b>him,</b>
<b>we</b>	and	<b>us,</b>	<b>they</b>	and	<b>them,</b>

are the corresponding subject and object forms of the same pronouns. This also we call a variation of *case*; and we call the form that is used as object the **OBJECTIVE case**. And then the form used as subject we call, to distinguish it from the possessive and objective, the **SUBJECTIVE case**—or, more usually but less correctly, the **NOMINATIVE**, or naming case (*nominative* means simply ‘naming’).

17. When a pronoun is connected with some other word by a preposition, we always use the objective case of it, just as when it is the object of the verb: for example,

**I know him and hear from him;  
He that is not with us is against us.**

And because the preposition seems to exert a kind of influence upon the word which it thus attaches to something else, we call that word the **OBJECT** of the preposition.

18. There is no noun in our language which really has an objective case, a form different from the nominative, and used

when the noun is object either of a verb or of a preposition. Thus, we say

**The father loves the son, and the son loves the father ;  
The father went with the son, and the son went with the  
father ;**

without any change of the words **father** and **son** ; and so in all other like cases.

Still, partly by analogy with the pronouns, and partly because many other languages related to English, and even English itself in earlier times, do distinguish the object from the subject in nouns as well as in pronouns, and partly again because a difference of name enables us to indicate a difference of relation, we usually speak of nouns as having an objective case ; but it is one that is always the same in form as the nominative.

And we speak of both verbs and prepositions as GOVERNING in the objective the word that is their object, because it is *compelled* to be put in that case after them, and because its relation to them, rather than any difference of meaning which we feel in the word itself, is the reason of its being made objective.

19. These are all the changes that make up the inflection of the noun and the pronoun. As they are of another kind than those of the verb, they go by a different name ; they are called the DECLENSION of the noun or pronoun, which is said to be DECLINED.

We sum up by saying :

*The noun and pronoun are inflected to show differences of case and of number, and this inflection is called their declension.*

The term *case* is derived from *casus*, the translation made at Rome of *ptosis*, the Greek grammatical term. It meant "a falling," a variation from the primary form in a noun or verb. This form in the noun, now known as the nominative, was represented by a perpendicular line and called the "upright" case, while the others were called the "slanting" or "oblique" cases. A scheme of these cases was known as DECLENSION. Gradually, however, the original meaning of CASE and DECLENSION was forgotten, and they came to be used as mere grammatical terms.

#### Comparison.

20. The adjective has no such inflection as the noun. In general, whatever the number and whatever the case of the noun it modifies, it remains unchanged. Thus, we say

**good man and good men ;**



and both of them may be used either as subject or as object : and we say also

a good man's reward and good men's deeds,  
where the modified nouns are in the possessive.

But we have two words used as adjectives (they are also pronouns), namely **this** and **that**, which change their form according as the noun they modify is singular or plural : thus, **this man**, but **these men**; **that horse**, but **those horses**.

In many other languages, and even in the older English, something like this is the general rule; an adjective changes its form, not only according to the number, but also according to the case and gender of the noun it modifies; thus making the noun GOVERN the adjective, or requiring the adjective to AGREE with the noun, in gender, number, and case, just as the verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

21. But adjectives have a variation of form to express a greater degree and a greatest degree of the quality which the adjective expresses, when from the nature of its meaning this is possible. Thus,

a tall man,      a taller man,      the tallest man;  
a bright day,    a brighter day,    the brightest day.

These three forms are called the DEGREES OF COMPARISON of the adjective, which is said to be COMPARED. Such forms as **greater**, **brighter** are said to be of the COMPARATIVE degree, and such as **greatest**, **brightest**, of the SUPERLATIVE degree; and then, in distinction from these, the simple unaltered adjective, like **great**, **bright**, is said to be of the POSITIVE degree.

This variation of the form of the adjective, though not, strictly speaking, an inflection, is usually and conveniently discussed along with declension and conjugation.

The variation is rather a matter of derivation than of inflection; for, as has been said above, in Old English, the three degrees of the adjective were inflected to agree with the noun. The comparative and superlative were derived from the positive by the addition of suffixes, and with these suffixes they formed stems, to which inflections were added. But in modern English there are no adjectival inflectional suffixes.

22. Hence we sum up by saying :

*The adjective is sometimes varied in form to show differences of degree; this variation of an adjective is called Comparison.*

#### The Other Uninflected Parts of Speech.

23. Of the remaining parts of speech, the preposition and the conjunction have no variation of form at all, of the kind here called inflection: they are called UNINFLECTED parts of

speech, or **PARTICLES** (*particle* means a *small* uninflected part of speech).

And so it is for the most part with the adverbs also. A few, however, either adjectives used also as adverbs, or words resembling those, have a comparison like that of the adjective: thus,

much, more, most ;                      ill, worse, worst ;  
soon, sooner, soonest.

24. We add, then, finally :

*Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are not inflected—but a few adverbs have a comparison like that of adjectives.*

#### Methods of Inflection.

25. We have thus noticed in a general way all the kinds of inflection of which English words are capable. Further on we shall take up each part of speech by itself, and explain its inflectional changes more fully. But before leaving the general subject, we will observe the methods of the change thus made in the words inflected :

a. The inflectional change is most frequently made by adding something on at the end of a word.

Thus, from **horse** come **horse's** and **horses**, by an added **s** ; so from **book** come **book's** and **books** ; from **love** come **lovest** and **loves** and **loved**, by similar additions.

Much the largest part of the inflection of English words is of this kind. And it will be seen hereafter that the other kinds are in origin only the consequences and alterations of this.

b. Some words are inflected, not by any additions made to them, but by changes made *in* them—alterations of the sounds of which they are composed.

Thus, from **man** comes the plural **men** ; from **run** comes the past tense **ran** ; from **lead** comes **led** ; from **send** comes **sent**.

c. In inflecting some words we both add something and alter the sound of the original word.

Thus, from **kneel** we form the past tense either by an addition, **kneeled**, or by a different addition and a change of sound, **knelt** ; so either **brothers** or **brethren** from **brothers** ; so **children** from **child** ; so **does** and **says** from **do** and **say** ; and many more.

d. Where most words have some kind of change in themselves for inflection, a few substitute what seem to be, or really are, wholly different words.

Thus, we have the possessive **her** and plural **they** from **she**, and in like manner **my** and **we** and **us** from **I**; we have the past tenses **was** from **am**, and **went** (which is really the past of **wend**, like **sent** from **send**) from **go**.

Of course, this is not real inflection at all, but, as will be seen hereafter, another kind of change, which takes the place of it.

e. Finally, where some words are inflected, others of the same class, remain unchanged.

Thus, unlike **man** and **horse**, **sheep** is the same in the plural as in the singular; **he** and **she** form special objective cases, but it is the same in nominative and objective; unlike **love** and **run**, **set** and **put** have the same form in the past tense as in the present; and so on. Such inconsistencies and irregularities are found more or less in every language.

#### The Origin of Inflections.

26. By comparing the personal inflections of the verbs in the different Indo-European languages; and by tracing as far back as possible in our own language the different forms these endings assume, scholars have found that the inflection **-st** in the second pers. sing., as in **love-st**, **ha-st**, **find-e-st**, was at one time **-t** (as is still the case in **shal-t**, **wil-t**, **ar-t**, and **was-t**); and that the original form of this **-t** was **-tl**, an ending identical in origin with our pronoun **thou**. In the same way, **-th** of the third pers. sing., now softened or weakened to **-s** (as in **love-s** for **love-th**), is identical in origin with our **the**, **that**, **then**, **there**, and so on.

Hence, originally **lovest** was equivalent to **love-thou**; and **loveth** or **loves** to **love-that**—if by the modern **thou** and **that** we represent pronouns of the second and third persons; the endings were thus significant relational expressions (II. 41). In time the significance of these endings was lost sight of; they became mere signs of relation, unmeaning in themselves; and, as at present, pronouns were placed before the verbs; thus,

Thou lovest, he loveth, he loves.

A change of somewhat the same nature, it will be seen (IV. 12), has taken place in the case of such a word as **manly**, in which the meaning of **like** (spelt in O. E. *líc*), the original form of **-ly**, has been completely lost sight of. In this case, too, the form of the original has been altered, and the result **-ly** has become a mere suffix of quality.

27. But, although most inflectional suffixes have, like **-st** and **-th**, originated in relational expressions, some have not.

Thus, the **-d** or **-t** of the past tense of the New conjugation—as, for instance, in **loved**, **said**, **added**, and **lost**—had in old English a longer form

-de. This -de represents -dede, which is the same as did, the past of do, our notional and relational verb (II. 42).

I loved is, therefore, weakened in meaning and sound for I love-did; so also lovedst, for love-didst. From an independent notional expression has thus originated the past suffix -d or -t.

28. It has been found also that a considerable number of other inflectional suffixes are traceable to independent relational or notional expressions, and the conclusion scholars have arrived at is that the origin of all may be thus explained; for in grammar, as in everything else, we proceed on the reasonable assumption that like effects are produced by like causes.

29. But not all our inflections are suffixes, or are due to suffixes. In the primitive Indo-European, the past tense was formed by reduplication, that is, by *doubling* the root: thus, if *vid* meant "seeing," *vidvid* meant "saw;" and to this were added the personal endings. But, owing to phonetic changes, in none of the languages of the family was the typical form retained. Of the Teutonic languages, Gothic alone preserved the reduplication in about forty verbs. But, even here, only the first letter of the root was repeated with a constant vowel-sound denoted by *ai*: thus,

*blanda*, "blend," had for past *baibland*, "blended;"

*slépa*, "sleep," " *saislép*, "slept."

And, in the other Teutonic languages, phonetic decay went still further. Not only was the last letter of the reduplicated syllable dropped, but also the first letter of the root syllable with, in some cases, its vowel-sound, thus contracting two syllables into one (IV. 45, d. (2)). In Old English the result was a monosyllabic past with the diphthong *eó*, sometimes shortened to *é* in all persons: thus,

*blandan*, "to blend," had for pres. *blande*, for past *bleónd*;

*slépan*, "to sleep," " *slépe*, " *slép*.

Probably, also, in some cases, the first of the two syllables dropped off, and the vowel-sound of the remaining syllable, was altered to make up for the loss (IV. 44). Nor was this all. This change of vowel, originally the result of reduplication, began to be looked upon as the means of denoting past time. This led to the substitution of vowel-change for the original mode of formation, new verbs of the Old conjugation being formed on the analogy of those in existence (IV. 46). In these ways, probably, have been produced the original forms of most of our existing strong pasts; but, as we shall see (VIII.), several other influences have aided in determining their present forms.

#### The Source of Inflections.

30. All our inflections, properly so called, are purely English; but, as we have seen (I. 22. 26. a, and 35), they have been modified and determined by Norman-French and other influences.

#### The Stem, or Base of Inflection.

31. In describing the inflection of any word, we take for a starting point that form which is usually the simplest and

briefest, and we treat the others as made from that by various alterations. This simplest form is called the STEM, or BASE OF INFLECTION. In nouns and pronouns it is the same as the nominative singular ; and in verbs, as the infinitive.

## EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Besides being carefully drilled on the subjects proposed in the following questions, pupils should, for a time, be required to name and give the force of inflections met with elsewhere. They should also be thoroughly drilled in the intelligent application of the necessary technical terms connected therewith.

1. Explain and illustrate the usual meanings of the following terms, stating the parts of speech to which each is applicable, and any different meanings it may have when thus applied :—

*Number, Singular, Plural, Government, Agreement, Person, Tense, Mood, Inflection, Conjugation, Case, Possessive, Nominative, Subjective, Objective, Declension, Comparison, Particle, Stem.*

2. Make a list of our inflections, and classify them under the heads mentioned in III. 1.

3. Give and name all the inflected forms of the following, stating clearly the effect of the inflection :

abbot, fox, ox, brother, man, fish, great, six, half, I, thou, he, she, it, this, that, who, what, which, other, bring, hate, be, slowly, but, if, hurrah.

4. Name, with explanations, the governing and the agreeing words in the following :

I saw him and his father. Thou seest the boy's books ; she sees his sister's. If this be so, I shall leave. For conscience' sake.

5. Why are there only three persons ? Why are nouns said to have no person ?

6. How many cases and tenses are there really in English ? What is meant by saying that English nouns have no objective case, and English verbs no future tense ?

7. Classify the relations and the meanings that are still expressed by inflections.

8. Name all the inflections for which we can find analytic substitutes, illustrating your answer by examples, and defining any differences that may exist between the two modes of expression. Name also, with reasons, those inflections with which we might dispense.

9. What in colloquial speech shows that in some cases inflections have still a tendency to disappear or to lose their value ? Name the inflections that are now obsolescent even in literary English. What influences tend to preserve our present inflections ?

10. Which, from the standpoint of Modern English, has the stronger claim to be regarded as an inflection—*Gender* or *Comparison* ?

11. Explain "All inflections illustrate fundamentally the process of word-making by combination."

12. What does RICHARD GRANT WHITE mean when he describes Modern English as "the grammarless tongue" ?

## CHAPTER IV.

## DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

1. We saw in the last chapter that English words are altered in various ways, in order to express differences of meaning, or on account of connection with other words: these changes we called *inflectional*.

It might have been said, properly enough, that these altered forms are derived from what we called the *stem* or *base of inflection* by certain additions or other changes: thus, **horses** is derived from **horse** by adding an s-sound; **men** from **man**, by giving a different sound to the vowel in the middle of it; **sent** from **send**, by altering its last sound; and so on.

But there is another set of changes, never called inflectional, to which the name *derivation* is more usually and properly given: namely, the change by which one stem or base of inflection is made from another: and these are what we have next to look at.

**Derivation by Suffix.**

2. To the adjective **true** we may add the sound **th**, making **truth**. In this new word, the notion of **true** is still evident; but the change which we have made has turned the adjective into a noun.

In such a case as this, the noun is said to be DERIVED from the adjective; the process of making it is called DERIVATION, and it is itself called a DERIVATIVE, or a derivative noun; and the word from which it is made is called its PRIMITIVE (*primitive* means here "more original predecessor"). And the addition -**th** that makes the derivative is called a noun-making SUFFIX (*suffix* means something "fixed or fastened on at the end").

There are many nouns made from adjectives in our language by the same suffix, often along with a change of sound in the adjective itself, to make easier the pronunciation of the derivative: thus,

warmth from warm,  
length    "   long,  
breadth   "   broad,

width   from wide,  
health   "   hale,  
filth    "   foul.



3. This derived noun **truth** we can then turn again into an adjective, by adding to it the adjective-making suffix **-ful**: thus, **truthful**; the word means nearly, though not precisely, the same as **true**. It is plain enough here that what we call the suffix **-ful** is really nothing but the common adjective **full**, and that **truthful** is nearly the same as **full of truth**.

The adjectives that are derived from nouns by adding **-ful** to them are a very large number: thus,

**faithful, sorrowful, disdainful, tearful, careful, wilful.**

4. But this derived adjective **truthful** we can turn once more into a noun by adding another noun-making suffix, namely **-ness**: thus, **truthfulness**. We might define **truthfulness** to mean "the quality of being *truthful*," just as **truth** sometimes means "the quality of being *true*."

The English nouns which are derived from adjectives by adding **-ness** are still more numerous than the adjectives which are derived from nouns by adding **-ful**. Examples are

**calmness, fatness, godliness, heaviness, foolishness, faithfulness, faithlessness, suitability, disinterestedness.**

5. In the same way, taking **foul** as our starting-point, we may form **filth**, "the quality of being foul," or also "what is foul"; then, by another suffix than **-ful** for making adjectives from nouns, **filthy**, "marked with filth"; and, again, **filthiness**, "the quality of being filthy."

Or, we might have added **-ness** directly to the primitive adjective **foul**, forming **foulness**, "the quality of being foul"; although we do not say **trueness**, any more than we say **truthy** like **filthy**, or **filthful** like **truthful**.

No real reason can be given for such differences; it is simply the case that the one is customary, or what we are used to, and not the other.

6. Again, both our adjectives **true** and **foul** we can turn into adverbs, by adding the adverb-making suffix **-ly**: thus, **truly, foully**.

And we can treat in the same way the derived adjectives **truthful** and **filthy**: thus,

**truthfully, filthily.**

In fact, there are not many adjectives in the language from which we cannot derive adverbs by this adverb-making suffix, and a large part of our adverbs are made by it.

But the same suffix **-ly** also makes a considerable number of adjectives from nouns ; thus,

**womanly, manly, brotherly, homely.**

7. Verbs are also derived from nouns and adjectives by verb-making suffixes : thus, **freshen** is derived from the adjective **fresh** ; **lengthen**, from the noun **length**. Other examples are

**whiten, blacken, sweeten, sharpen, heighten, frighten.**

And, on the other hand, derivatives are made by suffixes from verbs. Thus, from **suck** comes the noun **sucker**, meaning "one who sucks" ; from **hinder** comes **hindrance**, "anything that hinders" ; and so on.

And verbs in general form adjectives in **-ing** and **-ed** or **-en** which have the special name of "participles" ; thus,

**the rising sun, the clouded sun, the hidden sun.**

8. In all our examples so far, the word derived by adding a suffix has been a different part of speech from the primitive ; and that is in general the way in our language.

But it is not always so. Thus, we have nouns derived from nouns ; as **duckling**, "a little **duck**" ; **brooklet**, "a small **brook**" ; **countess**, "the wife of a **count**" ; **kingdom**, "the realm of a **king**" ; **knighthood**, "the rank of a **knight**."

Again, we have adjectives derived from adjectives : as, **greenish** from **green**—and **greener** and **greenest**, as we saw above (III. 21), are really of the same kind.

And there are a few cases of verbs derived from verbs (by a change in pronunciation, not by an added suffix) : as **fell**, "cause to **fall**" ; **set**, "cause to **sit**" ; **lay**, "cause to **lie**."

9. There are also nouns, as well as verbs, derived from verbs by changes of pronunciation, without any suffix : thus **stick** from **stake**, **speech** from **speak**, **breach** from **break**, and so on.

In most or all such cases there was formerly a suffix upon the derived word, but it is now lost.

This mode of forming new words by merely varying the vowel of the root-syllable (known as VOWEL-VARIATION), is common in the Teutonic languages. See also IV. 43. c. (3).

10. And also, because of the loss of suffixes that once existed, there are not a few instances in which words of which one is a derivative from the other, or else both alike are derivatives from a third which is

no longer part of the language, are now precisely alike : thus we have love (O. E. *lufian*) the verb and love (O. E. *lufu*) the noun. Other examples are

storm from O. E. noun *storm* and verb *styrman* ;

rest “ “ “ *ræste* “ “ *restan* ;

fly “ “ “ *fleoġe* “ “ *fleoġan* ;

sty, “a place for swine,” from O. E. *stigo*, and sty, “a swelling, from the O. E. *stigend*, “rising,” both being from the

O. E. *stigan*, “to climb.”

### Origin of Suffixes.

11. Such words as *awful* and *manly* illustrate the steps in the development of a suffix.

In *awful*, our adjective *full* is easily recognizable : the word is no less a compound than *awe-inspiring*. On consideration, however, we find that these words are compounds of different characters. Such a word as *awful* we cannot translate back directly into its component parts, without changing its meaning. We can say, without difference of meaning, both *awe-inspiring* and *inspiring awe*; but *awful* does not really mean “full of awe.” In the same way *dutiful* and *plentiful* do not mean “full of duty,” etc.: they are equivalents of *duteous* and *plenteous*, to which *-ous* is evidently a mere suffix, as it does not resemble any word we now use.

The frequent and familiar use of *-ful* in the same way in a large number of words in which the first part is the more important element, has caused it to lose its independent character and become a suffix forming adjectives from nouns.

*Awful* is, therefore, a type of a class of words derived from primitives by suffixes which are so little changed in form and meaning that they may be recognized as independent words. Such derivatives may be looked upon as lying on the boundary between derivatives and compounds. Other examples are

*witchcraft*, *mankind*, *godlike*, *stedfast*, *downright*, *welfare*.

12. When a Scotchman says *awfu'*, the adjective illustrates a further step in the development of a suffix : *fu'* is unrecognizable as our adjective *full*.

Good usage does not sanction *awful*; but in many derivatives the origin of the suffixes is still more obscure. Thus, the adjective *manly* evidently consists of two parts—*man*, which we recognize as our word *man*; and *-ly*, which suggests no independent word, but seems merely to impress upon *man* a certain modification of meaning. When, however, we trace *-ly* back to Old English, we find that its early form was, in adjectives, *lic*, our “like”; and, in adverbs, *lice*, the dative of the same adjective; both of which have, by phonetic decay, become *-ly*. In Old English, therefore, words ending in *lic* or *lice* are as evidently compounds as our *awful* or *manlike*.

In Modern English we have still further modified this suffix : we have allowed it to go out of use as an adjective-forming suffix; and, ignoring its origin, now use it solely to form adverbs from adjectives.

Manly is, therefore, a type of a class of words derived from primitives by suffixes, which, though themselves originally independent notional words, are now no longer recognizable as such. Other examples are

From O. E. *lác*, "gift," wedlock, knowledge;  
 " " *scipe*, "shape," friendship, landscape;  
 " " *ræden*, "condition," kindred, hatred;  
 " " *sum*, "like," gamesome, buxom, lissom.

13. Thus far we have traced our suffixes back to independent notional expressions, and this may be done with many; but there are others which scholars believe to be of a different nature.

By a comparison of English suffixes with similar ones in cognate languages, the *-th* in *truth* is shown to be of the same origin as the relational words *the*, *that*, *there*, and so on (II. 41).\*

In some nouns this suffix appears as *-d*; for example, in

*deed* from *do*, and *seed* from *sow*;

in others, as *-t* or *-th*, according as it is more easily pronounced; for example,

*truth*, *filth*, *warmth*, *flight* (for *flighth*), *height* (for *highth*).

In adjectives it appears as *-d* (*e* being a connecting vowel), as in

*horned*, *hoofed*, *dead* (from *die*), *cold* (from *cool*).

In participles it appears as *-d* or *-t*; but it shows its original form in *uncouth*, a derivative from *cuth*, which is a participle in Old, and even in Middle, English.

A good many suffixes may, like *-th*, be traced to purely relational expressions, which also scholars have reason to believe once possessed an independent existence. Other examples are

*-est* in *harvest*, *-m* in *blossom*, *-ing* in *clothing*, *-y* in *weary*.

14 The true nature of suffixes is by no means capable of being always definitely ascertained; but, for the same reason as in the case of inflections (III. 28), we conclude that all our suffixes were once independent expressions, which, having gradually lost their original meaning and form, became in the last stage of their growth mere elements in derivatives, impressing upon the principal part thereof some modification of its general meaning.

#### The Sources of Suffixes.

15. Like our words, our suffixes have come to us from various sources.

a. The most important are of English origin; for example,

*-er* in *doer*, *-el* in *shovel*, *-en* in *maiden*, *-ness* in *kindness*.

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\* What we now call a noun was originally a kind of sentence, consisting of the root and some so-called suffix, which pointed to some thing of which that root was predicated.—MAX MULLER'S *Hibbert Lectures* (1878).

b. Others are Romanic.

Some of these are completely naturalized, and are used with words of English origin. Examples are

**drunkard, tidal, goddess, bereavement.**

These Romanic suffixes include :

(1). Those taken directly from the Latin, either without change or with an English form ; for example,

**-tor in executor, -or in minor, -ive (Lat. -ivus) in sportive,**

**-an (Lat. -anus) in Grecian, -le (Lat. -ilis) in subtle :**

(2). Those from Latin with a Norman-French form : for example,

**-our (Lat. -or) in liquour, -ic (Lat. -iquus) in antic, -ess**

**(Lat. -issa) in countess :**

(3). Modern French and other Romanic suffixes ; for example,

from Modern French, **-eur in liqueur, -ique in antique,**

**-eer and -ier (Lat. -arius) in engineer and premier ;** from

Italian, **-one in trombone, and (with Eng. form) -oon in**

**balloon ;** from Spanish, **-ado in bravado and (with Eng.**

**form) -ade in renegade.**

c. A few, again, are Greek, some having come through the Latin, and some being naturalized ; for example,

**-ism (Lat. -ismus, Gr. -ismos) in deism, being naturalized in**

**heathenism ; -sis in paralysis, becoming -sy in dropsy (Lat.**

**-sia, Gr. -sis), and -se in eclipse and base (note also basis).**

#### **Derivation without Change of Form.**

16. But we often take a word which is properly one part of speech and convert it into another, without adding a suffix, or making any other such change of form as properly belongs to a derivative.

Thus, many adjectives are used as nouns ; for example,

**the good and the wicked,**

meaning good and wicked persons ; or

**the good, the beautiful, and the true,**

meaning that which is good, etc.

Some adjectives do not add **-ly** to form adverbs, but are themselves used directly as adverbs ; for example,

**much, little, fast, long, ill.**

Other adjectives add **-ly**, and sometimes are also used as adverbs without it ; for example,

**full, wide, late, hard, deep, sore ;**

as well as

**fully, widely, lately, hardly, deeply, sorely.**

Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives, as when we say

a gold watch, or a stone wall,

and both nouns and adjectives are turned into verbs : thus

I head a rebellion ;	I breast the waves ;
I finger a pie ;	They bettered their condition ;
I stomach an affront ;	I hand a paper ;
The fruit matures ;	I eye a scene ;
I foot a bill ;	I black boots ;
I toe a mark ;	The work wearied him

This also is a kind of derivation.

17. Functional interchange is due mainly to the fact that English words often consist of forms that possess neither inflections nor other suffixes : thus **head**, **finger**, **breast**, have no suffix to fix them as a certain part of speech ; they may be different parts of speech according as we assign them different uses. But, in the case of words that have inflections or other suffixes, the same freedom does not exist : thus, **really**, **goodness**, **quarrelsome**, **love's**, are to a large extent fixed by their endings.

This power, which is characteristic of so many English words, is a direct result of the loss of inflections, and was in the Elizabethan age used even more freely than at present. During that period almost any part of speech could be used as any other part of speech. Examples from Shakespeare are

They askance their eyes ; A seldom pleasure ;  
The backward and abysm of time.

18. We may sum up as follows what we have learned thus far in regard to derivation :

a. *Some derivatives are formed by adding suffixes without any change of sound in the primitive.*

b. *Other derivatives are formed by adding suffixes with a change of sound in the primitive.*

c. *Generally in English when we derive by suffix, the derivative is a different part of speech from the primitive.*

d. *The loss of the suffixes once possessed by certain words has produced derivatives with and without change of pronunciation*

e. *Derivation sometimes consists in transferring a part of speech into another class, without alteration of its form.*

The modes of derivation described in **d** and **e** are known as derivation IMPROPER ; the others are derivation PROPER.



**Derivation by Prefix.**

19. We have also derivative words formed by putting something before the primitive instead of after it. Thus, a host of words of various kinds may have **un-** put before them, making a derivative which is the same part of speech, but of opposite meaning. For example, **untrue** and **untruthful** are adjectives, the opposite of **true** and **truthful**; and **untruly** and **untruthfully** are adverbs, the opposites of **truly** and **truthfully**. We can say also **untruth**, though there are fewer nouns to which we add **un-** in this way: other examples are **unbelief**, **unrest**, And verbs derived with **un-**, (which is different in meaning from the **un-** before adjectives) like **undo** and **undress**, are still less common.

An addition thus made at the beginning of a word is called a **PREFIX** (*prefix* means something "fixed or fastened in front"). Prefixes are in English much less common than suffixes; they do not ordinarily change the part of speech of the word to which they are added; and no prefix, as we understand the word, now exists as a separate word. Other examples are

**befall**, **gainsay**, **recall**, **dishonest**, **mischance**, **coexist**.

**The Origin of Prefixes.**

20. Nearly all our prefixes were originally adverbs, or prepositions (most of which were themselves originally adverbs, **IX.** and **X.** 3), having to some slight extent changed their old form or meaning.

**The Sources of Prefixes.**

a. As in the case of suffixes (**IV.** 15), the most important prefixes are of English origin; for example,

**a-**, which is a corruption for different older forms in **abed**, **ado**, **adown**, **along**, **arise**, **aware**; **be-** in **begirt**; **for-** in **forgive**; **fore-** in **foresee**; **gain-** in **gainsay**; **mis-** in **misdeed**; **un-** in **unable** and **untie**; **with-** in **withhold**.

b. Besides these English prefixes, since so many Latin, Greek, and French words have been introduced, a very large number of Latin, Greek, and French prefixes are in use in such words.

(1). Many of the prefixes of Latin words that have come through the French have been altered; for example,

**contra-** has become **counter-** in **counterfeit**; **trans-**, **tres-** in **trespass**; **minus-**, **mis-** in **mischance**.

(2). But those in words taken directly from the Latin are unaltered; for example,

**dis-** in **dissimilar**; **extra-** in **extraordinary**; **se-** in **secure**.

(3). A few of Latin origin have become naturalized and are used in words of English origin also ; for example,

dis- in **disarm** and **distrust** ; re- in **recover** and **rebuild** ; en- or em- (Fr. form of Lat. *in-*) in **embrace**, **embody**.

c. Greek prefixes are generally unaltered, as they occur most frequently in words of late introduction ; for example,

ana- in **analogy** ; ec- in **eccentric** ; para- in **paraphrase**.

21. We again sum up thus :

a. *Derivatives are sometimes formed by adding a prefix, usually, however, without changing the part of speech to which the primitive belongs.*

b. *Derivation Proper is the formation of words by means of prefixes, or of suffixes, or of both.*

### Composition.

22. We saw above that the suffix **-ful**, of **truthful** and other words like it, was really the adjective **full** added to the word **truth**, in such a way that the two form but a single word. It would be proper, then, to say that **truthful** is a word made up of two other independent words, **truth** and **full**.

Further examples are

**rainbow**, **grassplot**, **gentleman**, **browbeat**, **fulfil**, **highborn**.

Such a word is called a **COMPOUND** ; the two parts are said to be **COMPOUNDED** ; and the putting together is called **COMPOSITION** (which means simply "putting together").

23. By many, the formation of new words by adding prefixes is regarded as composition ; but, when the prefixes are no longer used as separate words, and, consequently, do not retain an independent meaning, new words formed by them may with propriety be regarded as derivatives. Thus, for instance, we feel that the force of

re- in **return**, of pre- in **prearrange**, of sub- in **sub-officer** is less marked than that of

back- in **backwater**, of fore- in **forelock**, or of under- in **undergo**.

There is, however, no well defined boundary line between derivatives and compounds ; the more so, as all derivatives were once compounds.

24. There are great numbers of compound words in English, and we are all the time making new ones.

Sometimes the compounded words stand in the compound just as they would in a sentence, and seem simply to have grown together into one. Such are

**blackberry**, **broadaxe**, **gentleman highland**, **grandfather**.

Sometimes also, part of the compound consists of an adjective phrase ; thus,

**father-in-law, coat-of-arms, will-of-the-wisp, cat-o'-nine-tails,  
man-of-war, ticket-of-leave.**

Occasionally we find compounds in which the first part is a possessive case ; thus,

**monkshood, bridesmaid ; Tuesday, Wednesday (V. 58).**

Often, however, the connecting consonant is probably only euphonic : thus,

**huntsman, bandsman, oarsman, helmsman.**

A syllable, usually a vowel, which has apparently been inserted to join the two elements, but which is really an old suffix (sometimes phonetically altered) of the first element, is often found in the older forms of all the Teutonic languages. In Modern English, such an element is seldom found. Vowel examples are

**black-a-moor, night-in-gale.**

In handicraft and handiwork the *i* represents the old prefix *ge-*.

25. But much more often the parts of the compound have such a relation to each other that, if we used them separately, we should have to change their order, or insert other words to connect them, or make use of both these expedients : thus **housetop** is "*the top of a house,*" **headache** is "*an ache in the head,*" **heartrending** is "*rending the heart,*" **blood-red** is "*red like blood,*" **knee-deep** is "*deep up to the knee,*" **washtub** is a "*tub to wash in,*" **drawbridge** is a "*bridge made to draw up,*" **steamboat** is a "*boat that goes by steam ;*" and so on.

Other examples are

**sheep-shearing, walking-stick, horse-soldier, trust-  
worthy, manlike, foolhardy, law-abiding, moth-eaten,  
to backbite, to whitewash, to clear-starch.**

Then, there are cases in which the relation of the parts is still more peculiar : thus, a **pickpocket** is a "*person who picks-pockets,*" a **tell-tale** is "*one who tells tales,*" a **redcoat** is "*one who wears a red coat.*" Other examples are

**turnkey, cut-throat, lack-brain, godsend, windfall, afternoon.**

A good many compounds are formed by reduplication, the former element undergoing a vowel change. This is intended to strengthen the meaning. Examples are

**chit-chit, sing-song, knick-knack, ding-dong, riff-raff,  
zig-zag, slip-slop.**

Others again are formed by a kind of rhyming addition. Examples are

**hocus-pocus, hurly-burly, hoity-toity, higgledy-piggledy.**

26. A compound is thus, a shortened description of something. The compound word, though really made up of more than one part, comes to seem only one to us, and especially when we pronounce one of its parts more strongly and distinctly than the rest—or, as it is called, lay an ACCENT on a syllable of one member of the compound. Compare, for example,

**blackbird** with **black bird**, **gentleman** with **gentle man**.

27. In many compounds, the meaning also is different from the meaning of the elements taken separately. A **black bird**, for instance, is any bird that is black, whereas a **black-bird** is a particular kind of black bird. So, too, a **mad house** means a household that is mad, whereas a **madhouse** is a lunatic asylum. So far, therefore, as concerns the meaning, the uncompounded elements of a compound, in which one part describes the other, are general in their application, whereas the compound is specific.

The accentuation of one member of the compound subordinates one or more elements to one, thus producing a closer unity. This is often increased by the omission of connectives, and the inversion of the natural order of the components.

In most compounds it is the first part that modifies the meaning of the second: thus in **blackberry**, **black** tells us the kind of the **berry**. But, of course, this statement does not apply when the first part is a verb or a preposition governing the second, as **pickpocket**, **afternoon**; nor to such exceptional forms as **chit-chat**, **locus-pocus**.

28. But often, in a compound, the parts are less closely connected than in the examples in 27 above. Of such combinations, some are only occasionally used or are confined to one author. Examples are

**prize-ox**, **gift-horse**, **air-balloon**, **star-tuned**, **sphere-music**.

Others, again, go into general use, as, for instance,

**bank-deposit**, **book-case**, **book-cover**, **knee-deep**, **folk-lore**.

Such combinations are called TEMPORARY COMPOUNDS: their parts are connected with a hyphen, and both are equally accented. They form the connecting link between the phrase and the true compound.

On the other hand, true compounds, that is, those combinations that are permanently welded together, are called PERMANENT COMPOUNDS: they have no hyphen, and have but one accent.

So gradual, indeed, is the transition from the phrase to the temporary compound, from the temporary compound to the permanent compound, and from the permanent compound to the derivative (IV. 22), that it is sometimes difficult to decide in which of these classes to place an expression.

29. A compounded word often changes its pronunciation still further than has been stated in par. 26: consequently without studying its history, we do not think of what it comes from. So with **holiday**, which is **holy day**; **furlong**, which is **furrow long**; **fortnight**, which is **fourteen night**, and so on.

So, also, with **forehead** and **breakfast**, in which the spelling is retained but the pronunciation altered.

30. In some other compounds which have been in use for a long time, and which often consist of Old English words or forms of words, the form as well as the pronunciation has been greatly altered; thus, although we retain the unchanged form **housewife**, it has, in an altered form, given us **huzzy**. Other examples are

bridal,	O. E. <i>bryd-ealo</i> ,	"bride-ale,"	that is,	"bride's feast";
orchard,	" <i>ort-geard</i> ,"	"ort-yard,"	"	"herb garden";
nostrils,	" <i>nós-thyrle</i> ,"	"nose-thyrle,"	"	"nose holes";
steward,	" <i>sti-ward</i> "	"sty-ward,"	"	"sty-warden."

31. A compound may itself enter into other compounds: thus, by adding **wine** to the compound **gooseberry**, we have **gooseberrywine**. Such compounds are known as **DECOMPOSITES**. Other examples are

**handicraftsman**, **topgallantsails**, **pockethandkerchief**,  
**alehousewife**.

And, further, a compound may also yield derivatives: thus, from **barefoot** we have **barefooted**. Such combinations are known as **COMPOUND DERIVATIVES**, and are very frequently found especially in poetry. Other examples are

**knight-errantry**, **humblemindedness**, **broad-shouldered**,  
**depththroated**, **golden-shafted**, **subtle-cadenced**, **pure-eyed**, **royal-towered**, **vermeil-tinctured**.

32. We add, then:

a. *Composition is the formation of new words by putting words together, both of which retain their independent existence.*

b. *Of such combinations, the chief kinds are Permanent Compounds, Temporary Compounds, Decomposites, and Compound Derivatives.*

c. *The independent words are sometimes so altered in form and meaning, that, without knowing the history of the compound, we cannot tell what the original elements were.*

### Hybridism.

33. The general rule for the use of suffixes is that English suffixes are to be added to English primitives; Romanic, to Romanic; and Greek to Greek. The same rule applies also to derivation by prefix and to composition. The rule, however, is often and advantageously disregarded: thus, we say falsehood, although -hood is an English suffix, and false is of Latin origin; so, too, we say disbelief, although dis- is a Latin prefix, and belief an English word; and, again, we compound under and value in undervalue, although the former is English, and the latter is of Latin origin.

Words like falsehood, disbelief, undervalue, consisting of elements from different languages, are called HYBRIDS (the term means "mongrels"). Other examples are

hindrance, bondage; immenseness, dukedom, quarrelsome; endear, rekindle; besiege, unstable, unfortunate; overturn, afterpiece.

Generally, however, we find that, if a derivative has been formed by a suffix, and another, or, as it is called, a SECONDARY derivative, is to be formed from this—the PRIMARY derivative—by means of a prefix, the prefix is of the same origin as the suffix, and *vice versa*: thus, we have

undecided, indecisive, ungrateful, ingratitude, unjustly, injustice; and so on. But the rule does not apply to naturalized Latin prefixes or suffixes like dis- or -able; for we have

disbelieving, disarmed; unspeakable, unsaleable, uneatable, unacceptable.

34. For a long time past there has been a tendency to bring the elements of a word into linguistic harmony. The earlier writers of the Modern English period use hybrids which have been altered or disallowed: thus, in Milton and Shakspeare, we find

unglorious, undecent, impossible, perfectness, matchable, speakable, ungainsayable, apostlehood, humorsome.

But, here, as elsewhere, custom draws the line; for, though we may say dislike, we may not say dislive, and Milton's in chastity, ingrateful, have given way to less consistent forms.

### Root-Woods.

35. To all the words in the following list:

lovely, lovable, unloving, lovelier, loveless, loves, loved; one syllable **lov** is common: it represents the fundamental idea, which is modified by the additions. Such a syllable is called a ROOT; and the simplest word which contains it, as **love** in



this case, is called a **ROOT-WORD**. From forms like **lov**, stems are fancifully represented as growing by the addition of pre-fixes and suffixes, just as the stems of plants do from their roots. Other examples are

**tru** in **truth, trust, untrue, truthful, truly, untruly, distrust**;  
**grap** in **grab, gripe, grope, grapple, grasp, grapnel**;

for often in derivatives, as in the case of **grap**, the form of the root is altered from various causes.

These forms are often capable of further analysis on comparison with similar forms in the family of languages to which they belong. They are, therefore, roots only with reference to the language in which they are found ; they are not necessarily roots in human speech.

36. Hence, then, the definitions :

a. *Root is the name given to the part of a word which is common to it and other words with similar meanings, and which represents the fundamental notion of all those words ; and*

b. *A Root-word is the simplest word in the language, that contains a certain root.*

#### Word-analysis.

37. The chief practical value of a knowledge of how words have been derived and compounded, is that it enables us to analyze them, that is, to separate them into their elements or significant parts ; and, by assigning each its proper value, to obtain in many cases a clearer idea of the meaning of the whole word.

Thus, in the case of derivatives,

**un-speak-able** means "that cannot be spoken";  
**worth-less-ness** " "the quality of being without value";  
**dis-possess-ion** " "the act of taking away what one owns";  
**in-securi-ty** " "the condition of being not secure";  
**re-colon-ize** " "to plant a colony anew."

In the case of compounds, the analysis is very easily made, as the elements are independent words : thus, as above,

**black-berry** means "a berry which is black";  
**safe-guard** " "a guard to give protection";  
**pick-pocket** " "one who picks pockets."

Such words, however, as **son, love, go, run, bear** do not admit of analysis, as they are already in their simplest forms. In contrast with derivatives, such words are known as **PRIMITIVES**; and, in contrast with compounds, as **SIMPLE** words.

38. As we have seen (I. 12) a very large number of our words have come to us from Latin, some from Greek, and a few from other sources. The last are of comparatively little importance; but words of Latin and of Greek origin—the former especially—are so numerous, that even the English student should be able to analyze such words as **secure** and **amphibious**, or **principal** and **aristocracy**, which, though primitive so far as concerns English, are derivatives or compounds so far as concerns Latin or Greek. To this end he must make himself familiar with the forms and the meanings of the Latin and the Greek root-words, prefixes, and suffixes, that have been most productive of the classical element of our vocabulary. With this knowledge, he will be able to analyze a large number of naturalized words of Latin and Greek origin (*naturalized* here means “regarded and treated as English words”) in the same way as he would analyze English derivatives or compounds (IV. 37).

Without an accurate knowledge of our own and of many other languages, it would be impossible for even the advanced English student to give a complete analysis of all the derivatives and compounds in the language, or to trace the changes which primitives have undergone. In ordinary word-analysis, especially of words from English roots, it is sufficient to indicate the radical part by reference to a root-word, and to give the full force of the prefixes and suffixes. The advanced classical student is, however, able to carry the analysis still further.

39. The determination of the true meaning of words by reference to their origin is often rendered difficult by changes which, in accordance with the general law (I. 15), they undergo in their meaning and in their form.

Changes in form obscure the original elements of a word.

Changes in meaning make it often difficult, and sometimes impossible, to deduce the exact meaning from a knowledge of the meaning of the original or of the elements; but there are few cases in which this knowledge does not give greater definiteness to our conception of the meaning of a word.

We shall now consider the chief causes of the two sets of changes.

#### Changes in the Meaning of Words.

40. Changes in the meaning of words are due to such a variety of causes, and the changes themselves are often so subtle, that an exhaustive

classification of the principles that underlie them is impossible. A few general ones may be stated :

a. As a nation advances in civilization, its ideas become more definite, and numerous distinctions have to be made. Hence, additional words are needed ; and as the number increases, the meaning of each becomes restricted ; thus furlong (IV. 29), originally vague and unsettled in length, is now a definite measure of distance ; so, too, spice, originally species, "a kind," is now limited to a particular "kind." This principle is known as CONTRACTION or SPECIALIZATION ; it is by far the most common source of change in meaning. Other examples are

pay, M. E. *paien*, from Latin *pacare*, "to pacify" ;  
corpse, " *corps*, " *corpus*, "a body" ;  
starve, " *steruen*, " O. E. *steorfan*, "to die in any way."

Where inflectional or other influences have produced two or more forms of the same word, these forms gradually become differentiated in meaning, or one or more fall out of use. For examples, see V. 36, a. and b.

b. But we have also some words that have become more extended in their application ; such words are chiefly technical : thus privilege originally meant "a law passed relating to an individual." This principle is known as EXTENSION or GENERALIZATION. Other examples are

legion, from Latin *legio*, "a division of a Roman army" ;  
pomp, from Greek *pompe*, "a solemn religious procession" ;  
decimate, from Latin *decimare*, "to select by lot every tenth man for punishment" ;  
company, from *com-*, "together," and *panis*, "bread" ; so, literally, "those that eat together."

c. By figurative uses, words alter their meanings, or become more serviceable by acquiring additional meanings.

Thus, by metaphor, we have the present meanings of

provident, extravagant, polite, exonerate, corroborate, bombast,  
arena, extenuate, palliate, austere ;

and the figurative meanings of

deluge, delicate, letters, vision, taste, spur, flower .

we use the abstract for the concrete, and *vice versa* ; for example, the concrete meanings of

reason, object, subject, youth, age, beauty, wealth :

we use one part of speech for another ; for example, the different meanings of

except, accent, minute, beautiful, wealthy, object, reason :

and so on with other figurative uses of words.

d. Words become degraded in meaning.

Sometimes this change is due to our desire to palliate the offensiveness or wickedness of the things they denote ; thus, plain and ordinary are used in the sense of "ugly" ; and annexation, in that of "robbery of territory by a nation."

Sometimes also the change is due to historical influences combined with other causes ; thus, *villain*, originally a serf on the *villa* or farm of his Norman master, acquired by metaphor its present meaning, from the low morality of the class. Similarly

*churl* (O. E. *ceorl*), “a countryman”; *rascal*, “a lean, scraggy deer”; *boor*, “a farmer”; *knave*, “a boy;”

have acquired their present meanings.

e. Less often a word becomes improved in meaning by lapse of time : thus, *Christian* was originally a nick-name invented by the people of Antioch. Similarly

*generous*, “well born”; *marshal*, “horse-servant”; *worship*, (i.e., *worthship*) “the condition of worth”; and *minister*, “a servant”;

have acquired their present meanings.

f. Words shift their meanings with an alteration in the things they denote ; for example

*volume* was originally a “roll”; *book*, the O. E. *bóc*, “a beech tree”; *ballot*, “a little ball”; *baize*, “bay-colored coarse cloth”; *bugle*, “the horn of the *bugle* or wild ox.

This is also illustrated by the names of sects, churches, and political parties.

41. As may be seen by the foregoing examples, not all these principles are mutually exclusive. The present meaning of a word is also often the result of the operation of more than one of them.

### Changes in the Sounds and Forms of Words.

42. Being only signs of ideas, not descriptions or reflections thereof, words have no inherent power to retain their form (see also II. 43). They are, therefore, subject to such changes as may be suggested by the convenience or caprice of those that use them.

#### I.—THE PRINCIPLE OF EASE.

43. The desire to do as easily as possible what is to be done, is characteristic of mankind, and is the main cause of the changes which our words have undergone. So long as they remain intelligible signs of our ideas, we pronounce them in the ways we find the easiest. The principal of these changes we shall now consider.

When we find a sound or a combination of sounds in any way difficult to pronounce,

a. We transpose the letters that compose it : thus, the O. E. *clapse* has become the modern *clasp*. This is known as *METATHESIS*. Other examples are

*ask*, O. E. *ács-ian* ; *hasp*, O. E. *hæpse* ; *fright*, O. E. *færhto* ;  
*else*, O. E. *elles* ; *bird*, O. E. *brid*.

Note also that we now pronounce, as if beginning with *hw*, words beginning with *wh*; for example, *when*, *where*. But, as the O. E. equivalents began with *hw*, the modern form is an instance of transposition of letters merely, not of sounds.

b. We substitute an easier one for it: thus, the O. E. *sorh* has become, our *sorrow*. Other examples are

*iron* for O. E. *isen*, *sheep* for O. E. *scedp*, *loves* for *loveth*.

So, too, although we retain the letters, we alter the sound of the guttural *gh* in

*hough*, *enough*, *cough*, *laugh*, *lough*, *slough* ("a serpent's skin").

Of the same nature as this, is

c. ASSIMILATION, that is, the making alike or nearly alike sounds that are hard to pronounce together. Of this there are various forms:

(1) Where two concurrent consonants are made the same, as in *Harry* for *Henry* (through the French nasal sound of the word), the assimilation is said to be COMPLETE. Other examples are

*lissome*, O. E. *lithesome*; *garrison*, Fr. *garnison*;

*gossip*, O. E. *godsib*; *renown*, the older *renowm*;

*accredit* from *ad-* and *credit*.

Note also the pronunciation of such words as

*cupboard*, *debtor*, *plumber*, *tristle*.

(2) When, however, two concurrent consonants are made only more like each other, as in *dipt* for *dipped*, the assimilation is said to be INCOMPLETE.

This kind of assimilation is very common in English, but it is generally concealed by the spelling; for example, *impatience* from *in-* and *patience*; and *slabs*, pronounced *slabz*.

As will be seen hereafter, it is an important factor in the production of inflectional changes of sound; for example,

*lads*, *lad's*, *wives*, *dogs*, *dog's*, *wags*, *bathes*, *rubs*, *dubs*.

From the examples given above of incomplete assimilation, the general law follows, that a flat sound must be followed by a flat, and a sharp by a sharp; thus, as we have seen, the flat *b* in *slab* is followed by the flat *z* sound in *slabs*, and the sharp *p* in *dip* by the sharp *t* in *dipt*.

(3) But we have VOWEL ASSIMILATION as well as consonantal assimilation; thus the oldest form of our plural *mæn* was, we have reason to believe, *manni* (or *mannis*); and just as the *y* sound at the end of our many causes us to pronounce it *menny*, so this *manni* was no doubt pronounced *menni*, giving us finally *men* (owing to the general loss of all plural inflections except *s*). Before pronouncing the final vowel of the first syllable, the thought of the vowel of the one following came into the mind, and an unconscious effort was made to bring about a similarity, the result being a weakening of the *a* to *e*, which is a vowel sound between *a* and *i* (pronounced like *y* final).

(4) A similar change has taken place in the case of our noun *woman*, of which the primitive form was *wifman*, "wife-man." The addition of *man* to *wif* caused the strengthening of the *i* to *o*, and the consequent change of spelling to the modern *woman*. Note also that we still say *wimmen*, though, owing to the influence of *woman*, we write *women*,

The forms of **men** and **woman** have thus been produced by suffixes which caused incomplete vowel assimilation.

(5) When, again, we add to **long** the sharp **-th**, it causes a modification of the preceding vowel, owing to incomplete assimilation, **-th** being an abbreviation for **thi**; or to its being easier to say **length** than **longth**.

Note also the effect of the accumulation of consonants in

**kneel, knelt; creep, crept; cleave, cleft; lose, lost.**

**d.** Another form of the principle stated in **b.** is DISSIMILATION. The difficulty of pronouncing the same sound after a short interval produces an alteration of the repeated sound: thus, we now say **cinnamon** for the older form *cinnamom*. Such concurrences of sound are, however, infrequent in English. Other examples are

**marble, purple; M. E. *marbre, purple*; Lat. *marmor, purpura*:**

**flannel for the older *flannen*: colonel, pr. *kurnel*.**

## II.—ACCENT.

**44.** ACCENT alone often changes the sound of a syllable: thus, the Latin **consilium** is the French **conseil**, which, in the course of time, became Anglicized (**I. 38**) into **counsel**. Other examples are

**soun-d** from Fr. *son*; **heave** from O. E. *hefan*; **story** for *history*;

**bait and bite** from **bit**; **cow**, O. E. *cu*.

This lengthening of a vowel-sound is known as ECTASIS ("a stretching out").

Occasionally, when letters, especially consonants, have been dropped in a syllable, the stress of the voice which remains causes a lengthening of the vowel sound, to *make up for the loss*: we seem to have a feeling that the syllable has been unduly shortened; thus, **goose** is the O. E. *gós*, which is for an old form *gans*. This is known as COMPENSATION.

Note also the compensation for the silent letters in

**chalk, talk, falcon, design, climb, might, folk.**

No doubt, however, the Principle of Ease (**IV. 43**) has been a factor in these results.

The importance of accent is increased by the fact that it shifts owing to contractions which themselves are due to the disappearance of both accented and unaccented syllables; as, **aim** from the Lat. *æstimāre*: to the influence of native accent upon words of foreign origin differently accented; as, **counsel, conseil**: or to the convenience of differentiating words similarly spelt; as, **áccent** and **accént**.

## III.—INDISTINCT ARTICULATION, WITH OR WITHOUT ACCENT.

**45.** Another result of our desire for ease, and one of the most important causes of phonetic change, is INDISTINCT ARTICULATION. This may act alone; but generally it acts in connection with accent.

**a.** The marked accentuation of the primitive part and the indistinct articulation of the rest caused the reduction in value of the independent words from which our existing suffixes are derived (**IV. 12 and 14**).



b. They were also important agents in causing the weakening to *e* of the O. E. vowel-endings *a*, *o*, and *u*; and the final loss, in many instances, of this weakened ending (I. 35): thus *nama* became *name*, the final vowel being retained although not now pronounced; and *oxa* was first altered to *oxe*, and finally to *ox*. Other examples are

*widuwe*, *widow*; *beó*, *bee*; *mona*, *moon*; *ealo*, *ale*; *sunu*, *son*.

c. To the same cause, is due the hastening of the loss or the mutilation of many of our earlier inflections, the vowel-sounds of which were first weakened to *e* (see V. and VIII): thus,

-an became -en,    -um became -en,    -ru became -re,  
-ena    “    -ene,    -ra    “    -re,    -ath    “    eth.

To the uneducated and to foreigners, the root of the word is the main thing, and, therefore, they lay the stress on the root syllable; consequently, the consonants of the inflection drop off and the full-toned vowels are weakened to *e*, which finally disappears or becomes mute.

d. Under the same influences, other unaccented syllables have become weakened, or have disappeared altogether.

(1) Sometimes the loss occurs at the beginning of a word: thus, from *histry*, we have *story*. This is known as *APHERESIS*. Other examples are

van    from Fr. *avant*,    bishop from Gr. *episcopus*,  
bus    “    *omnibus*,    sport    “    *disport*.

(2) Sometimes also it occurs in the body of a word, causing contraction: thus, *sacristan* has become *sexton*. Note also the pronunciation of *towards*. This is known as *SYNCOPE*. Other examples are

lord from O. E. *hláford*,    sprite from *spirit*,  
sheriff “ O. E. *scirgeréfa*,    brain,    “ O. E. *brægen*.

So, too, we have rejected the guttural sound of *gh* in  
daughter, mighty, sought, wrought, thought, slaughter.

*Orison*, however, Fr. *oraison*, has merely weakened the vowel-sound.

To syncope, probably, is also due the original formation of many of the preterits of the Old conjugation. Others may be due to apheresis, the reduplicated syllable having been dropped, and the radical vowel strengthened for compensation (IV. 44). Others, again, may have been simply the result of analogy (IV. 46). See also III. 29.

(3) Sometimes, again, it occurs at the end of a word: thus, *wantonness* is in M. E. *wantounesse* (final *e* being pronounced). Note also the pronunciation of *plough*, *high*, *though*, etc. This is known as *APOCOPE*. Other examples are

*anvil*, O. E. *anfilte*; *petty*, M. E. and Fr. *petit*; *cab* from *cabriolet*.

e. To indistinct articulation, alone, or combined with a desire to strengthen a syllable, is due also the addition of letters to a word.

(1) Occasionally the addition occurs at the beginning: thus, *newt* should be *ewt*, but the phrase *an ewt* led to a *newt*. This is known as *PROSTHESIS*. Other examples are

the *nonce* for *then once* (M. E. *then ones*), a *nickname* for *an ekename*,

The preceding examples are really the results of mistakes ; but the s- sound in such words as

s-lash, s-plash, s-quench.

seems to be due to Prosthesis.

In French Prosthesis occurred more frequently than in English ; hence Modern English has such double forms as

special and especial,

strange and estrange,

state and estate,

spy and espy ;

the shorter forms being in some cases directly from the Latin, and, in others, by Apocope, from the French.

(2) More frequently the addition occurs in the body of a word : thus, the O. E. *slumerian* has become the modern *slumber*. This is known as EPENTHESIS. Other examples are

empty, O. E. *æmtig* ;

nimble, O. E. *nimol* ;

messenger, M. E. *messenger* ;

gender, O. F. *genre* ;

impregnable, O. F. *imprenable*,

porringer for porridge.

(3) Sometimes also it occurs at the end : thus, the obsolete *wikké* has become *wicked*. This is known as EPITHESES. Other examples are

sound, Fr. *son* ;

whilst, M. E. *whiles* ;

tyrant for *tyran* ;

compound for *compoun*.

#### IV.—ANALOGY.

46. Almost all those changes in the sounds and forms of words, that are not attributable to one or more of the causes we have enumerated, are due to ANALOGY (or resemblance), each having been made on the analogy of those that have preceded it. This has often led us into curious mistakes.

a. Sometimes we have changed the form of a whole word in an attempt to find a meaning in that which has none, and from a fancied resemblance to the sound of some English word : thus, the Fr. *femelle*, from the Lat. *femella*, a dim. of *femina*, has been turned into *female*, although *-elle* is merely a Fr. fem. termination. Other examples are

rhyme for *rime*, from a supposed connection with *rhythm* ;

righteous for *rightwise* (that is, "wise as to what is right"), as

-ous is a common adjective suffix ;

sovereign for *sovrán*, from a supposed connection with *reign*

shamefaced for *shamefast* ("held fast by shame").

b. Our inflections have also been influenced in this way. Through our desire for uniformity (I. 64. d.) all the newly formed verbs of the Modern English period are conjugated according to the new conjugation. Sometimes, through this desire, we have added the characteristic inflection of this conjugation to the past tenses of old strong verbs : thus, the O. E. strong past *slep* from *sleep* has become the monstrosity *slept*.

Other examples of similar mistakes are

wept from weep, leapt (pronounced "lept") from leap ;  
 could from can, owing to the influence of should ;  
 pea from pease, pease being itself a singular, (M. E. *pese*, with  
 plural *pesen* and *peses*) ;  
 sherry from *sheris* ; cherry from *cerise*.

So, too, the vulgar *shay* and *Chinee* for *chaise* and *Chinese*.

c. The same influence has been at work in word formation.

Owing to the more general use of the prefix *be-*, we have the form *be-think*, although the prefix was originally *ge-*, which *be-* has now driven out (I. 37 (1)). Other examples are

belief for *gelief* ; dislike for *mislike* (*mis-*, as in *misdeed*) ;  
 foreclose for *forclose* ; forego for *forgo* (*for-* as in *forbid*).

The suffix *-head* or *-hood*, O. E. *hād*, also illustrates our fondness for having some meaning in the words we use. *-head* is properly used in the compound *wellhead*, and *-hood* in *monkshood* ; but neither has its usual meaning in such words as *Godhead*, *childhood*. We have been led to make these forms by a mistaken analogy.

47. Many of the preceding changes in sound and form are due to our dislike for a variety of forms (this dislike is itself due to the Principle of Ease), or to our natural desire for uniformity : new forms are thus made on the analogy of preceding ones (Hybridism is largely due to this influence), and old ones are often forced into the established fashions.

48. We may thus sum up what we have learned in regard to changes of sound and form :

a. *The great causes of change of sound in English words are, first, our desire for Ease of Pronunciation, and, secondly, the influence of Accent.*

b. *These two causes act sometimes separately, and very often together ; so that the modern form of a word that has been long in use is generally the result of the operation of both.*

c. *Almost all other changes are due to Analogy.*

49. In our consideration of the causes of change of form in words, we have dealt solely with the changes that have taken place in the words since they became English. Foreign words also and especially Latin words that have come to us through the Norman French, underwent similar changes before being introduced into our language. The consideration of these changes belongs properly to the Etymology of the languages to which the several words belong. It is well, however for the English student to know that, making allowances for the preferences of other nations, almost all changes in the word-forms of the members of the Indo-European family are due to the causes we have enumerated above.

#### Roots and Root-Words.

50. When we strip the prefixes, suffixes, and inflections from such a list of words as

forbearance, provident, factories, prosecutions, reverted ;

we have left one part of each word which may be identified with a simple word : thus,

bear- suggests bear; vid-, video ("I see"); fac-, facio ("I make"); sec-, sequor ("I follow"); vert-, verito ("I turn").

Bear, video, facio, sequor, verito, are called RADICAL or ROOT words because they contain the Roots bar, vid, fac, sac, vart, that is the significant syllables which are taken as representing in the simplest and most general way the central or fundamental ideas of "bearing," "seeing," "making," "following," and "turning."

It is not asserted that bar, vid, and so on, ever existed as words. Such forms are merely assumed by etymologists as the simplest expressions for the fundamental ideas of words.\*

51. Roots like bar, vid, fac, and so on, which express action or quality, that is notions, are called PREDICATIVE (the term here means "capable of being used in predication"). Such roots correspond to notional words, and like them are very numerous. They illustrate, in form, every variety of syllable from a single vowel, as i ("going"), whence ex-i-t, to a vowel preceded and followed by more than one consonant, as skarp ("cutting") whence sharp.

52. But there are words and elements of words which cannot be traced back to predicative roots. Such also are believed to be derived from simple significant syllables called DEMONSTRATIVE roots (for they are regarded as having once been coupled with the act of "pointing out"). Such roots correspond to relational words. They have nothing to do with actions or qualities: they mark them merely in relation to the speaker or to one another; they distinguish between *this* and *that*; between what is near and what is remote; between *me* here, *you* there, and *that* person or thing there. From them come many of our suffixes; the personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns; also adverbs of position and direction.

Such roots are very few—not more than a dozen—and probably fewer. Examples are

ma, whence comes the first personal pronoun;

ta, whence come the, that, their, these, and so on;

ka (English form of this root, wha), whence come who, when, where, and so on.

\*Two main theories are held as to the nature of Roots.

According to one, the "Indo-European language with all its fulness and inflective suppleness, is descended from an original monosyllabic tongue; our ancestors talked with one another in single syllables, indicative of the ideas of prime importance, but wanting all designation of their relations." Out of these fundamental ideas, by processes like those by which words are still formed, have grown the various languages of the family.

According to the other, Roots are "the phonetic and significant types discovered by the analysis of the comparative philologist as common to a group of allied words. They form, as it were, the ultimate elements of a language, the evident starting-point to which we can reach, the reflections of the manifold languages formed by the childhood of our race." "They fluttered before the soul like small images continually clothed in the mouth, now with this, now with that, form, and surrendered to the air to be drafted off in hundredfold cases and combinations."

53. As we have already seen, besides the roots or radical parts we find in words other elements—prefixes, suffixes, and inflections; these elements *form* the roots into words by indicating a restriction, application, or relation of the fundamental idea; and are, thence, called FORMATIVE elements. The suffix *is*, of course, the element which forms the root into a part of speech; and, by many, the term *Formative* is applied to this alone; but we here use it to include prefixes and suffixes, as they also *form* the roots in the sense just explained.

No roots exist alone: each has with it at least one element which forms it into some particular class: thus, the root *cap* is formed by the suffix *ture* into *capture*, and the general meaning of *cap* is still further restricted when formed into the verb *recapture*.

54. In English, however, there has been so much phonetic decay that in very many words the formative suffixes have suffered mutilation, and are not distinguishable, or are no longer present. In English, therefore, a root is sometimes the same or almost the same as a stem (which properly consists of a root and a formative suffix): thus, the root *bar* differs little from the verb *bear*: so, too, *dig* is of the same form as the root *dig* (or, as it is sometimes spelt, *dhig*).

55. With few exceptions, most of which are only apparent, all our words admit of analysis into two parts—a root or radical part and a formative part.

The real exceptions to this statement are such words as are imitations of the cries of animals, as *cuckoo*, *peewit*; or, of noises, as *buzz*, *bang*, *whizz*. In a compound, there are, of course, two distinct stems; and, as we have seen, owing to phonetic decay, some English words have been stripped of their formative suffixes.

56. We sum up thus finally what we have learned in regard to the nature of the significant elements that compose our words:

a. *With few exceptions, each of our words admits of analysis into a Formative part and a Root part (IV. 36).*

b. *The Formative part—prefixes, suffixes, and inflections—indicates a restriction, application, or relation of the fundamental idea.*

c. *Roots are of two kinds—Demonstrative, corresponding to relational words; and Predicative, corresponding to notional words.*

d. *All words were at one time compounds—that is, formative elements had at one time an independent existence: these elements are consequently all derived from Demonstrative or Predicative roots.*

And, therefore,

e. *All the elements of which our words are composed are derived from Demonstrative or Predicative roots.*



## EXERCISES.

As has been said (IV. 37), the chief practical value of a knowledge of Derivation and Composition, is that it generally enables us to obtain a clearer knowledge of the true meaning of words. For junior pupils, only such words should be selected as, on analysis, readily show their true meaning : analysis that requires a more minute knowledge of the history of their changes of form and meaning, should be taken up by seniors. The following exercises are intended to serve as types. Similar ones should be based upon the Reading and the Literature lessons, and the definitions obtained by the process of analysis should in all cases be selected with reference to the meanings of the words in the text. So, too, with the meanings assigned to the prefixes, suffixes, and root-words. In the earlier stages of the pupil's progress, the exercises should be confined, as in I.—X. below, to words which have an English primitive ; and the teacher is recommended not to carry the analysis further, should these primitives happen to be derivatives from classical sources. As soon, however, as the study of Latin and Greek root-words has been begun, the analysis may be continued, and that of words from classical primitives taken up. No attempt should be made by ordinary High-School pupils to memorize Old English root-words ; it is sufficient in the case of a purely English derivative or compound to refer to the simplest Modern English root-word. Exercises in synthesis are also valuable language lessons ; they should be used in the same way, and for the same purposes, as those in analysis.

Used orally, exercises in analysis are exceedingly valuable ; when written, they should be constructed according to the following schemes :—

**irresistible** = **ir** + **resist** + **ible** . “ that can be (-ible) not (**ir**-) resisted ; ”

And at a later stage, thus :

**irresistible** = **ir** + **re** + **sist** + **ible** - “ that can be (-ible) not (**ir**-) with (**re**-) stood (**sist**-). ”

After some practice in the preceding schemes, the following will be sufficient :—

1. **enable** = **en** + **able** = “ to make able ”
2. **countless** = **count** + **less** = “ without count. ”
3. **translate** = **trans** + **late** = “ to carry across,” that is, “ to carry thoughts from one language into another. ”
4. **impervious** = **im** + **per** + **vi** + **ous** = “ having no way through it. ”



## §§ 2—9.

I. Separate each of the following into primitives and suffixes, and show how the suffixes affect the meaning :

healthiness, drainage, ventilation, basement, trembling, sailors, artist, ghastly, European, courteous, maidenhood, godhead, kindred, responsibility, darling, rookery, farthing, wander, nibble, stealth.

II. From the following primitives form by suffixes as many derivatives as possible, giving in each case the force of the addition :—

law, lie, sweet, gold, brass, saint, Asia, America, Canada, friend, conclude, muscle, winter, water, honor, break, lamb, know, wed, stream, duck, hate, count, jewel, hill, game, eat, rose, black, nun, prior, brag.

## § 16.

III. Name the part of speech to which each of the following words usually belongs, and construct sentences to show that it may be transferred to another class without alteration in form :—

warm, motion, post, book, provision, preface, fear, Canadian, place, love, notice, minister, pain, note, dream.

## § 19.

IV. Separate each of the following into primitive and prefix, and show how the prefix affects the meaning :—

discontent, encourage, unmarried, impotent, retrace, extraordinary, withstand, propose, gainsay, oppress, undress, unbelief, concave, mishap, forlorn, forget, prolong, denude.

V. From the following primitives form by prefixes as many derivatives as possible, giving in each case the force of the additions :

patience, turn, shore, bid, lay, trust, ever, run, manly, do, hold, bitter, siege, cover, bear, date, worker, ease, danger, human, midst.

## §§ 22—31.

VI. Translate into phrases, as in IV. 25, the following compounds, writing as temporary compounds those which should be so written :—

sheepdog, seacoast, deafmute, merchanttailor, wolfdog, pathway, forget-menot, bedridden, shepherd, ringleader, thunderstruck, bloodshed, field-mouse, welfare, lifetime, grasshopper, mainspring, headstrong, footway, bedroom, woodwork, bakehouse, smellfeast, goby, deadripe, hardgotten, darkeyed, seagreen, heartrending, daredevil, foolhardy, bellweather, mayfly, railway, waylay, doff, crossquestion, fulfil, handcuff.

VII. Express by a compound each of the following phrases :—“as high as one’s breast,” “a tree the fruit of which is the fig,” “a man who acts as servant,” “a woman who begs,” “a shaking of the ground,” “one who kills a man,” “a fish that lives in the sea,” “one who goes to church,” “one who deals in oils,” “the office where objects are insured against fire,” “a high estimation of one’s self,” “a place where one may have something to eat,” “as dark as coal,” “looking like death,” “tearing the heart,” “crowned with snow,” “that can keep out water,” “surrounded by the sea.”

## § 37-38.

VIII. Analyze the following, giving the force of the root-words, prefixes, and suffixes :

prolonged, confronting, immeasurably, ruthlessly, grievousness, longer, belied, civilization, correspondent, consultation, wintry, northern, forbearance, brotherhoods, recollection, inestimable, displeasure, refreshment, favorite, representation, visitants, passage, buoyant, continuity, volcanic, streamlets, invisible, reconverted, warmth, ninth, heraldry, clambered, counteracted, enjoying.

IX. Form as many words as possible from each of the following primitives by the addition of prefixes, or of suffixes, or of both ; state how each addition affects the meaning, and name the part of speech thus formed :

hot, fresh, absent, real, dear, gentle, dark, high, wild, wise, day, cloud, notice, able, mountain, nature, speak, man, earth, east, beauty, heart, friend, blood, courage, stem, know, sing, give, pursue, seize, war, dare, tell.

X. Translate into a derivative, with an English primitive, each of the following phrases :—"more than human," "to lead in a wrong direction," "not clean," "to give courage to," "to pay no attention to," "between nations," "not proper," "that cannot be cured," "one who drinks greatly," "a king's realm," "a condition of servitude," "a little girl," "one who writes," "the condition of a child," "to make new again," "the race of man," "the quality of being wild," "one who bears testimony," "a place where fishing is done," "made of lead," "of the nature of a child," "somewhat green," "not possessing teeth," "to daze often," "to stray often," "to spit often," "to make long," "to tell often," "one who assists," "a little cask," "a little man," "the condition of being equal," "capable of being moved," "inclined to talk," "one who writes for the daily papers."

XI. Analyze the following, giving in each case the Latin or the Greek root-word and stem, the prefix and the suffix, with the force of each :

reflect, prosperous, sensible, recipient, prospective, confidential, confederated, secluded, sustenance, intercourse, accessories, solitude, vitality, suppression, independence, acquirements, educational, instruction, procedure, acquisition, conferred, miscalculation, literary, appreciation, exaggerated, mechanical, archaism, apogee, periphrasis, apostrophe, eclectic, epitaph, apathy, diameter.

XII. As in IX above, form as many words as possible from the stems of the derivatives in XI.

XIII. Translate into a derivative each of the following phrases, using a Latin or a Greek stem :—"that cannot be counted," "to make great," "pertaining to the sun," "the act of looking under," "one who works by art," "belonging to the country," "the act of joining together," "full of words," "to throw head first," "a seeking into," "belonging to time," "a touching together," "a keeping away from," "want of feeling," "feeling for others," "given to visions," "the rule of the people," "the rule of the rich," "the rule of the best," "the rule of the few," "one's life written by one's self," "one who lives in a place."

## § 35.

XIV. Write the root-words, roots, and stems of the following :

drooping, dropped, drip, dribble, drivelling, hack, haggle, hatch, hash, bar, barrel, barriers, barricade, embarrassed, embargo, snake, sneak, snail, sop, sup, sip, soup, supper, cool, cold, coldish, colder, coldest, hate, hatred, hating, hatest.

## §§ 1—56.

XV. Discuss the derivation of the following words in reference to change of meaning and change of form :—

challenge, reason, feat, pity, poor, route, garner, kindred, sempstress, blossoms, sultry, borough, garden, hither, cob-web, dig, draw, chant, bigamy, toil, viper, dislike, sample, dropsy, Lent, peasant, amidst, gossip, chamber, male, debt, blame, aim, chain, plunge, grange, expense, advance, acorn, barley-sugar, belfrey, cannibal, case-mate, causeway, counterpane, country-dance, crayfish, cutlet, dandelion, delight, dormouse, female, foolscap, frontispiece, gooseberry, gilly-flower, hurricane, Jerusalem-artichoke, parchment, penthouse, pick-axe, preface, runagate, tomahawk, wiseacre, umpire, auger, apron, lethal, ceiling, posthumous, frock, fuel, praise, toast, acre, yard, bowl, circumstance, impediment, prevaricate, perjurer, impertinent, cash, clown, sharp, libel, Whig, Tory.

XVI. Give other forms of the following, accounting for the differences of form and of meaning :

esteem, attach, chance, count, debt, draw, fresh, grave, loyal, mayor, mood, penance, tract, utter, wince, antic, beech, close, diamond, fashion, gentle, parson, pity, sample, sexton, sever, treason, wake.

XVII. Account etymologically for the different meanings of the following :

bat, beetle, bull, burden, case, date, defile, gloss, gout, grave, host, lay, lie, mint, peer, refrain, sound, tense, trump, van, vice.

*Ans.* When preparing the answers to XIV.-XVII., refer to an etymological dictionary.

## EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Give the different meanings of the term Etymology. Distinguish between Grammatical and Historical Etymology.

2. Discuss the question as to whether bishopric, kingly, kinglike, landscape and friendship are compounds or derivatives. By what tests would you differentiate compounds and derivatives?

3. Estimate the relative value of the two elements of a compound. Distinguish between Composition and Combination. What is the chief value, in expression, of derivatives and compounds?

4. Give an outline of the process of reasoning by which we arrive at the conclusion that all the elements of our words are derived from demonstrative or predicative roots.

5. Classify the principal suffixes on the basis of origin and of significance.

6. Show the origin and the meaning of the prefixes and suffixes in

ashore, ancestor, benumb, forgetting, misconception, neglect, ransom, mischief, mischance, outrage, execute, astonish, pilgrim, parsonage, abbreviate, avow, control, demure, essay, sojourn, suddenly, viscountess, parish, systematic, portraiture, avant, amend, descant, ignorant, neutral, pardon, sedition, surface, trespass, buxom.

7. Explain why a knowledge of Etymology is especially valuable to the student of the Elizabethan writers.

8. Apply your knowledge of Etymology to the explanation of the following :

1. To provoke unto love and to good works. 2. Let them learn first to show piety at home. 3. And thou most dreaded impe of highest Jove. 4. The undaunted fiend what this might be admired. 5. Certainly virtue is like precious odors; most fragrant when incensed. 6. The sin of mawmetrie ("idolatry") is the first that is defended in the ten commandments. 7. My thought, whose murder yet is but fantastical, shakes so my single state of man. 8. He crooketh them to his own ends, which are often eccentric to the end of his master or state. 9. They were stoned to death as a document unto others. 10. Thy daughter is dead; why diseasest thou the master? 11. For ditty, I find Sir Walter Raleigh's verse most lofty, insolent, and passionate. 12. You stand within his danger, do you not?

## CHAPTER V.

## NOUNS.

1. Thus far we have been looking chiefly at words, in order to be able to tell to what class each one belongs, or what "part of speech" it is; to see what are the principal uses of each part of speech in the sentence; how some parts of speech are inflected; and how some words are derived from others, or put together to form others. Now we shall take up each part of speech by itself, and examine it more fully in regard to these matters.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

2. A **NOUN** is, as we have seen (II. 15), the name of anything. We have noticed the principal uses of the noun in the sentence. Most important of all, it is the subject of the sentence: thus,

**The sun shines;      Horses run.**

It is also the object of a verb: thus,

**I see the sun;      He drives the horses.**

It is governed by a preposition: thus,

**I look at the sun through a glass.**

It is modified by an adjective, which may be used either before or after it: thus,

**I look at the sun with weak eyes protected by a glass.**

There are other uses of the noun, which will be explained later; but these are the ones by which we can best try a word, to see whether it is or is not to be called a noun.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

## I.—Abstract and Concrete.

3. A noun is sometimes the name of a separate or individual object that may be seen or touched: thus,

**a man,      a horse,      a tree,      a house:**

or of a part of it: thus,

**hand,      cheek,      knee,      side,      front,      back:**

or of the material of which it is composed: thus,

**flesh,      wood,      silver,      porcelain,      iron,      clay.**

4. Again, a noun is the name of an object that is perceived by the other senses : thus,

**noise, thunder, odor, flavor :**  
or of things which we conceive of as existing, though our senses do not show them to us directly : thus,

**mind, soul, God.**

5. Nouns are names also of a vast number of qualities and conditions and relations of objects : thus,

**place, color, height, weight, speech,**  
**rectitude, frailty, truth, ugliness, motion,**  
**nearness, distance, presence, absence, existence.**

These are called **ABSTRACT** nouns, because we *abstract* (that is, "draw off, separate") the qualities, and so forth, from the objects to which they belong, and think of them by themselves, as if they had a separate existence.

6. In contradistinction to abstract nouns, all other nouns, that is, the names of objects which have a real and separate existence outside of our own minds, are called **CONCRETE** (the term means "formed into one whole," "considered in all their properties together").

## II.—Proper and Common.

7. A noun is generally the name of each member of a whole class of similar things ; it belongs to a number of different individuals, and to one of them just as much as to another : for example,

**city, country, day, month, star, dog, man.**

But, in some classes, the different individuals are of importance enough to have names as individuals, distinguishing them from others of the same class. Thus, each country, each city or town of a country, each street of a city, has its own name, by which it may be known from other countries, towns, or streets : for example,

**England, Canada, Ottawa, Toronto, Cornhill, Broadway.**

So each day and month, each planet or star : as

**Wednesday, June, Venus, Jupiter, the Pleiades.**

So, to its acquaintances, each dog or other animal they may wish to distinguish : as

**Snap, Floss, Spot, Rover, Dickie, Tom, Jessie.**

So, especially, each man or woman : as

**Moses, Cleopatra, William Pitt, Florence Nightingale.**

Such a noun is called a **PROPER** noun or name (that is, "belonging to something in particular," "*appropriated* to individual use").

A **PROPER** noun or name, then, is a name given to an individual of a class, to distinguish it from other individuals of the same class.

And, in contrast to these, all the rest are called **COMMON** nouns—that is, names owned *in common* by a number of things of the same kind, their class-name.

To distinguish proper nouns, they are written with a capital letter, just as other words are occasionally so written, if special importance is to be attached to the notions they represent.

8. A common noun is a name and something more, for it tells us that the object named possesses certain characteristics: thus, **lake**, besides being the name owned in common by a number of things, tells us that any one of them is a large body of water surrounded by land: the name **lake** can be applied to such objects only as have these characteristics.

A common noun is, therefore, a name which possesses a certain meaning: it is **SIGNIFICANT**.

9. The proper name **Erie**, however, is a name and nothing more. By it we distinguish a particular lake. It tells us nothing about the characteristics of the object: the name **Erie** might just as well be applied to a river, a city, a horse, or a steamboat.

A proper noun is, therefore, a mere name: it is **NON-SIGNIFICANT**.

10. Sometimes a proper name belongs to more than one individual: thus, there are hundreds of people called **Smith**. Although the name **Smith** is thus used as the common name of a number of individuals, it is still a proper name; for there is usually nothing common to the individuals called **Smith** (as there is to the **Miltons** [V. 43. a.]) to distinguish them from those, for instance, called **Brown**: the name is still proper; it is non-significant, and is applied to each individual separately. But, as the intention of proper names is to denote individuals and not classes, such names are supplemented by additions called Christian names, which render them still more proper to individuals (in the same way as does the descriptive noun in a word compounded of two nouns [V. 30. b.]): thus,

**John Smith, Henry Brown, John Plantagenet Smith,**



and so on; each addition making the proper noun more markedly proper.

Titles have to some extent the same effect, and are generally related in the same way to the proper names to which they are added (sometimes, indeed, the title is a real adjective): thus,

**Miss Smith, Miss Jane Smith, John Smith, Esq.; John Smith, junr.; His Excellency John Smith; The Honorable John Smith; John Smith, Earl of Utopia.**

11. Many proper nouns are known to have been originally significant. The meaning of the proper noun was at first especially connected with a single object. It was then applied to this object alone; and, as the mere name marked the individual, its signification became unimportant, and was, therefore, lost sight of. Thus, *Keewatin* is with us a mere name; originally, however, it was significant, meaning "the land of the north-west wind." Other more evident examples are

**Rapid City, Whitehead, Land's End, Scotland, England, Long Sault.**

### III.—Collectives.

12. Some nouns signify, not any single thing, but a certain number or *collection* of single things: thus,

**pair, dozen, jury, group, troop, family, tribe, nation, people.**

Such nouns are called **COLLECTIVES**.

We may speak of collectives as if they formed a single thing: thus,

**The jury was in its room,**

in which case we make the verb singular; or we may speak of them individually and separately: thus,

**The jury are all old men,**

in which case, thinking of the sense, we make the verb plural.

13. **SENSE CONSTRUCTIONS**, that is, constructions that regard the *sense* and not the form of a word, are common in all languages, and especially in spoken language. Many of the apparent exceptions in the use of number-forms will disappear if this principle be kept in mind. See below 42. and 45. Further illustrations in other departments of grammar will be seen hereafter

### IV.—Gender-Nouns.

14. Some nouns mark the thing signified by them as male or female: thus,

**man, woman; son, daughter; actor, actress; hero, heroine.**

Such nouns are called **GENDER-nouns** (*gender*, in older English, meant "a kind, class, or sex").

And those gender-nouns that signify male beings are called **MASCULINE** nouns, or nouns of the masculine gender; while those that signify female beings are called **FEMININE** nouns, or nouns of the feminine gender.

All other nouns—those that are not gender-nouns, or have nothing to do with defining sex—are often called **NEUTER** nouns, or nouns of the neuter gender (that is, that represent objects “of *neither* one sex nor the other”). Either they belong to objects that have no sex, like

**sun, day, house, leather, stone, hair, virtue;**

or they are given indifferently to beings of both sexes: as

**child, bird, hound, fish, crab, mosquito.**

15. As, however, the sex of the object is the basis of the classification of gender-nouns, and as sex concerns only objects which possess it, it is unnecessary to say anything about gender in connection with a noun, unless it be a noun that actually implies a distinction of sex.

Gender in Modern English is, therefore, strictly speaking, the distinction of words as masculine or feminine, corresponding to the distinction of living objects as male or female.

16. The distinction of gender in English nouns is of practical importance only so far as concerns the proper use of the pronouns of the third person and their derivatives.

17. A distinction of sex is indicated by nouns in three ways:

a. By the use of different words: as

<b>buck, doe;</b>	<b>hart, roe;</b>	<b>boy, girl;</b>
<b>stag, hind;</b>	<b>brother, sister;</b>	<b>monk, nun.</b>

b. By masculine gender-nouns and by feminine gender-nouns derived therefrom by means of suffixes (V. 27. f.). Examples are

**hero, heroine; baron, baroness; abbot, abbess; duke, duchess.**

c. By compounding gender-nouns with other nouns and with adjectives (V. 30). Examples are

**he-goat, she-goat; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; pea-cock, peahen; gentleman, gentlewoman; landlord, landlady.**

18. A distinction corresponding to gender in common nouns is also made in the case of Christian names, generally by the use of different names (compare a. above): thus,

**John, Thomas, James; Margaret, Louisa, Isabella;**

and occasionally by the use of feminine derivative forms (compare 17. b. above): thus,

Paul, Pauline; George, Georgina; Henry, Henrietta;  
Robert, Robina.

Such nouns, however, being non-significant, are not always gender-nouns; they may be properly applied to any object whatever which we may wish to distinguish, although they are generally used as the names of persons. Sometimes, indeed, the masculine forms are applied to female objects, and feminine forms to male objects.

19. In Modern English, sex has been adopted as the basis of the classification of genders; but in most other languages this is not the case, nor was it so in Old English. In these languages, masculine, or feminine, or neuter gender-nouns do not necessarily represent male, or female, or sexless objects. The nouns have certain endings which determine their gender without reference to their meaning. Generally speaking, for instance, in Old English,

-a, -*hād*, -*scipe*, -*dōm* are masculine, as in *mona*, "moon"; *cildhād*, "childhood"; *freōndscipe*, "friendship"; *freōdōm*, "freedom":

-*nes* (from adj.), -*u*, -*ung* or -*ing* (from verbs) are feminine, as in *blīthnes*, "joy"; *lufu*, "love"; *leornung* or *leorning*, "learning":

-*en* (diminutive) is neuter, as in *cycen*, "chicken"; *mægden*, "maiden."

The different genders are marked also by a difference of declension. In Old English, a fictitious or conventional sex is, thus, sometimes attributed to inanimate objects, and the gender of the nouns representing living beings does not always correspond to the sex. This distinction, which affects words only, is known as TRUE or GRAMMATICAL gender in contradistinction to NATURAL gender, in which, as in Modern English, the gender of the noun corresponds to the sex of the object.

20. Strictly speaking, a language does not possess true gender unless the declension of the words is affected, and unless sex is attributed to inanimate objects. In the figure Personification, we see in Modern English a fragment of the second element in gender: in the case of the pronouns of the third person, we see also fragmentary specimens of a gender that modifies the declension. With these exceptions, we have discarded the artificial distinctions, and now possess no true gender. Its disappearance is due mainly to the influence of Norman-French, which had but two genders—the masculine and the feminine—with characteristic endings generally different from those of Old English. During the coalescence of the vocabularies, confusion and loss of inflections and other suffixes took place (I. 35 and 37 (2)). A gender which depended on differences of inflections and other suffixes could not exist when these differences had disappeared; and, in the fourteenth century, the modern system was established, by which we use masculine and feminine suffixes as indications of sex, and have no suffixes to indicate sexless objects. Since then, it is only in the language of feeling that objects without life are spoken of as if they had it; and objects with

life, as if they had none ; nor would this be possible, were it not that the pronouns of the third person have in the singular a separate inflection for distinction of sex.

#### V.—Diminutives.

21. Some nouns mark the thing they signify as of small size ; or, if a creature, as young, not full-grown. Examples are

**brooklet, hillock, baby, gosling, lambkin.**

These are called DIMINUTIVES (words showing something *diminished*, or made small).

Diminutives sometimes express endearment or contempt : as

**darling, lordling, mannikin, poetaster, versicle.**

Words like **boy, babe, colt, lamb, pup**, have a meaning like that of diminutives ; but it is usual to give this name only to words derived from others by suffixes that add the diminutive meaning.

#### VI.—Augmentatives.

22. On the other hand, we have also a small class of words which mark the thing they signify as being of large size, or as possessing a quality in a high degree. Examples are

**stanchion, balloon, trombone, tankard, sweetheart (IV. 46. c).**

Such words are called AUGMENTATIVES (words showing something *augmented* or increased).

And, as in the case of diminutives, these words often imply contempt or blame : as

**drunkard, braggart, dotard, sluggard (from *slug*, “to be inactive”).**

Augmentatives, however, are often such by derivation only : in the case of many, we do not now feel that they denote an increase of the original meaning.

#### VII.—Patronymics.

23. A small class of proper nouns consists of the names of persons formed from those of their parents or their ancestors. Examples are

**Robinson, MacDonald, Fitzgerald, O’Connel, Browning.**

Such words are called PATRONYMICS (that is, “names derived from the *name of a father*”).

24. As we have seen (V. 5-7), we may classify nouns, on the basis of the extent of their applicability, into Proper and Common ; or, on the basis of the mode of existence of the things they represent, into Abstract and Concrete. Owing to the infinite variety of the meanings of common nouns, it is not possible to divide this class, on the basis of meaning, into exhaustive sub-classes. Those, however, of especial importance

have already been described, namely, Collectives, Diminutives, Gender-nouns, and Abstract nouns; for the last are also Common nouns, when they stand for an instance of the quality, condition, or relation they denote: thus,

**a speech, a distance, a virtue, a grace.**

### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

25. We have now to notice the principal classes of nouns according to their form.

On this basis, nouns are divided into SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

#### I.—Simple.

26. SIMPLE nouns are such as we cannot take apart into simpler elements in our own language: as

**sun, man, boy, hope, chair, family, character.**

It has been already pointed out (IV. 38) that a great many words which are thus defined as simple are found to be really derivative or compound, when we come to know more about them. To recognize the plain and evident derivation and composition of English words is the proper preparation for studying the history of the obscurer ones. The senior student, however, should, when possible, account etymologically not only for the less evident English derivatives and compounds, but for Romanic and Greek formations.

#### II.—Derivative.

27. DERIVATIVE nouns are such as come by additions or other changes of form from other words used in our language. The most important and frequently used classes of derivative nouns are as follows:

##### I.—BY SUFFIX.

a. ABSTRACT nouns, from adjectives: as

**goodness, freedom, frailty, falsehood, hardship, justice,  
absolutism, finery, quietude, truth, height:**

or from nouns: as

**Godhead, knighthood, hatred, kingdom, despotism, friendship,  
mastery, vassalage:**

or from verbs: as

**wedlock, knowledge, endurance, persistence, action,**

b. DIMINUTIVES, from other nouns: as

**gosling, brooklet, lambkin, hillock, ballot, baby, pickerel  
(from pike), versicle, circlet.**

c. Nouns denoting an ACTOR, from verbs : as

lover, runner, beggar, sailor.

d. Nouns denoting one who DEALS WITH OR PRACTISES anything, from other nouns : as

jailer, lawyer, glazier, annalist, roadster, engineer, scholar, missionary, grammarian.

e. Nouns denoting ACTION or CONDITION, from verbs : as

striking, feeling, meaning, being.

f. FEMININE GENDER-nouns, from masculines. The commonest suffix, and the only one by which fresh feminines are now formed, is *-ess*. In some words, it is added to the simple masculine ; in others, the masculine ending is dropped or shortened before it. Examples are

countess, count ; goddess, god ; governess, governor ;  
abbess, abbot ; actress, actor ; murderess, murderer.

We have in Modern English a trace of two Old English fem. suffixes, namely, *-en* and *-ster* (I. 37 (2), and IV. 47). The former appears in *vixen*, that is *fyxen*, the fem. of the Mod. E. *fox* (IV. 43. c. (3)), of which a dialectic form was *vox* ( V. 36. a.) ; and the latter, in *spinster*. In other nouns, however, *-ster* is now confined to the masculine (see also d. above). These suffixes were driven out by the Norman-French *-ess*, which had established itself in English by the end of the fourteenth century.

The following words of foreign origin, being incompletely naturalized, retain their original forms :

Lat. testator and testatrix ;	Fr. belle from beau ;
“ administrator and administratrix ;	Slav. czarina from czar, with a Teut. suffix.
“ executor and executrix ;	Ital. signora from signor(e) ,
Dd. landgravine from landgrave ;	Arab. sultana from sultan with an Ital. suffix.
“ margravine from margrave ;	Span. donna from don ;
	“ infanta “ infante ;

Sometimes, also, we find in use French feminines corresponding to English masculines : thus,

tragedian, tragedienne ; equestrian, equestrienne.

Besides the foregoing classes, there are others of derivatives of less frequent occurrence : for example,



g. Nouns denoting the PERSON TO WHOM ANYTHING IS DONE, from verbs : as

trustee, payee, mortgagee, committee.

h. Nouns denoting THAT WHICH IS MADE OR DONE, from verbs : as  
weft (from weave [IV. 43. c. (2) and (5)]), drift (from drive), gift, cleft.

i. AUGMENTATIVES, from nouns, adjectives, and verbs : as

balloon, dotard, drunkard, braggart, dastard.

j. PATRONYMICS, from other proper nouns : as

Richards, Browning, Dickson, O'Connor, MacIntosh, Price (*ap-rees*),  
Fitzgerald.

## 2. BY INTERNAL CHANGE.

28. A few derivative nouns are formed by internal change (IV. 9):  
thus,

tip from top, stick from stake, chick from cock.

## 3. BY PREFIX.

29. Nouns from other nouns : as

unbelief, unconcern, inexperience, nonsense, disease,  
disgrace, ex-mayor, ante-room, sub-officer.

## III.—Compound.

30. COMPOUND nouns are such as are made up of two or more words used independently in our language. The principal classes of compound nouns are as follows :

a. A noun with a preceding adjective that qualifies or describes it : as

ill-will, mid-day, blindworm, fortnight, Englishman;  
male-servant, female-servant ; step-son, step-daughter ;  
Frenchman, Frenchwoman.

Step is the O. E. *steop*, "orphaned." The meaning being forgotten, step-father and step-mother were formed by analogy (IV. 47).

b. A noun with a preceding, or, less frequently, a succeeding noun that describes it : as

merchant-tailor, barber-surgeon, north-east, oak-tree,  
lord-lieutenant, earl-marshal, queen-dowager ; men-  
singers, women-singers ; man-servant, maid-servant ;  
servant-man, servant-maid ; cock-sparrow, hen sparrow ;  
he-goat, she-goat ; buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit.

c. A noun with a preceding noun that limits it in any other way : as

**sunrise, seashore, innkeeper, churchyard, rainbow,  
nest-egg, shellfish, steamboat, railway; landlord,  
landlady; milkman, milkmaid.**

This class is by far the largest, and the relation of the limiting noun to the other is a very various one.

d. A noun with a preceding verb-stem taken in the sense of a verbal noun : as

**washtub, treadmill, drawbridge, bakehouse :**  
that is, "tub for washing," and so on.

e. A descriptive compound, made either of a noun and preceding adjective (class a.), with the idea of possession added : as

**redcoat, blue-stockings, graybeard :**  
that is, "one who has or wears a red coat," and so on ; or of a verb with its object or an adverbial expression following it : as  
**pickpocket, turnkey, lie-abed, runaway :**  
that is, "one who picks pockets," and so on.

f. A noun with a prefix : as

**inland, afterthought, overthrow, underbrush, forelock,  
outpost.**

It is not easy to draw the line sharply between those words formed with prefixes which are to be regarded as compounds and those which are to be regarded as derivatives (IV. 28).

Besides the foregoing, there are other classes of compounds of less frequent occurrence : for example,

g. A noun followed by an infinitive in -ing : as

**bull-baiting, fox-hunting, wire-pulling, sight-seeing.**

h. A noun followed by an adjective : as

**court-martial, princess-royal, knight-errant.**

Such combinations either are of French origin ; or are formed after the French mode, as is the hybrid knight-errant.

i. A noun preceded by a possessive case : as

**bridesmaid, monkshood, Tuesday (V. 58).**

j. Nouns arising from sentences of various kinds, especially imperative sentences, which have grown into a whole : as

**runaway, godsend, farewell, standby, forget-me-not, go-by.**

Other combinations similar to these are illustrated in the exercises on this chapter.

As we have seen (IV. 30), the elements in some Old English compounds are corrupted, or disguised, or are unknown in Modern English. And a similar statement is true of many words naturalized from other languages.

## INFLECTION.

31. Nouns are inflected, or varied in form, to express differences of NUMBER and of CASE. The inflection of a noun is called its DECLENSION.

### I.—Number.

32. The numbers are two: the SINGULAR, used when only one thing of the kind denoted by the noun is meant; and the PLURAL, when more than one are meant.

#### 1. MODERN MODE OF FORMATION.

33. English nouns regularly form their plural by adding -s or -es to the singular: thus,

hats, hoes, kisses.

34. But, as the examples just given show, the added -s is pronounced sometimes as an s (hats), sometimes as an z (hoes), and sometimes as an additional syllable (kisses)—just as we find it easiest; for we desire to do with as little trouble as possible whatever we have to do. This principle, which is known as the Principle of Ease, is the chief cause of modifications of sound and spelling in our language. In this instance, it is applied as follows:

a. If a noun ends with the sound (however spelt) of p, or t, or k, or f, or th pronounced as in thin and truth, the added -s has the proper s-sound, as in sauce, and does not make an additional syllable: thus,

caps, capes, mats, mates, tacks, cakes, chiefs, safes,  
seraphs, coughs, truths.

b. If a noun ends with the sound (however spelt) of any vowel, or of m, n, ng, l, or r, or of b, d, g as in egg, v, or th as in the and lathe, the added -s makes no additional syllable, but has the sound of z: thus,

days, fees, eyes, hoes, pews, brows, boys, hymns.  
chimes, sins, signs, songs, walls, cars, cares, tubs,  
tubes, lads, spades, eggs, eaves, lathes.

c. If a noun ends in a hissing or sibilant sound—namely, the sound of *s*, *z*, *sh*, and *zh*, however spelt (hence including the *x*, *ch*, and *j*-sounds)—the added sign of the plural makes another syllable, *es*, and is written *es*, unless the noun ends already with a silent *e*; and the *s* (as always after a vowel sound) is pronounced as *z*: thus,

kisses, horses, ices, boxes, buzzes, prizes, matches,  
fishes, judges.

35. The O. E. plural inflections are *-an*, *-as*, *-a*, and *-u* (or *-o*): thus, *tungan*, “tongues”; *dagas*, “days”; *sáwela*, “souls”; *ricu*, “riches.”

These were first reduced to *-es*, *-en*, or *-e* (IV. 45. c.); then to *-es* and *-en*; and finally to *-es* (later *-us*, *-ys*, *-is*), as *-es* was like the *-s* and *-x* plural inflections of the Normans (I. 35); the usual law, that languages reject all seeming irregularities (IV. 47), causing the disappearance of the other forms, except in the case of a few words still retained in very common use. For a time this ending was pronounced as a separate syllable; but in and after the fourteenth century it was, when possible, reduced to *-s*. This result made phonetic changes necessary, as the inflection was thus brought into direct contact with the last sound of the noun stem (IV. 43. b).

## 2.—MODIFICATIONS OF THE MODERN MODE.

36. Some nouns are more or less irregular in the way in which the addition of the plural sign is made. Thus,

a. Of nouns ending in an *f*-sound (*-f* or *-fe*), the following have *-ves* in the plural:

knife, life, wife, leaf, thief, sheaf, loaf;  
and nouns in *-lf*, except gulf.

**Staff** has **staves** in the usual sense, and **staffs** in compounds (as **flag-staffs**) and in the sense of bodies of officers; and **wharf**, besides the regular plural, has sometimes **wharves**, the latter of which will probably fall out of use.

Usage in the case of the plurals of words ending in an *f*-sound has been capricious; for many words that now end in *-fs* had *-ves* in older English: thus

dwarves, scarves, turves, kerchieves, mastives, cleeves (for cliffs).

Besides *elves* and *shelves*, we find also *elfs* and *shelfs*.

Words from foreign sources retain a final *f*-sound unchanged in the plural. **Beeves**, however, is formed from **beef** (O. Fr. *bœf*, “an ox”).

In Old English, *f* seems to have been sometimes pronounced like *v*, as it still is in *of*; and in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the spelling was frequently made to accord, when the sound stood between two vowel sounds: thus, the M. E. *lyf*, “life,” had for plural *lives*,

and the adj. *def*, "deaf," *deve*. But the language was not always consistent in this matter, and in the different dialects *f* and *v* are still often confounded : thus, we have in Dorset,

vrom, avore, volk, vind, vloor.

b. Many nouns ending in the singular with **th**, having the **thin**-sound, change it to the **the**-sound in the plural, and then, of course, give the **-s** the **z**-sound : thus,

path, paths ; oath, oaths ; mouth, mouths ; truth, truths ;  
cloth, cloths and clothes ("dress").

This irregularity may be explained on the same principle as that under a. above : the Old English forms probably ended in a flat **th**.

c. Die, pea, and penny form the plurals,

dice, pease (IV. 46. b.), pence (O. E. *pens*),

besides the regular **dies**, **peas**, **pennies** ; the different forms being used in somewhat different senses : thus,

**dies**, "stamps for coining" ; **dice**, "cubes for gaming."

**peas**, "separate seeds" ; **pease**, collective ;

**pennies**, "separate coins" ; **pence**, "

d. Many nouns in everyday use, ending in **o** after a consonant, and those ending in **y** after a consonantal sound, add **-es** instead of **-s**, changing **y** to **i** : thus,

cargo, cargoes ; pony, ponies ; colloquy, colloquies.

But we have, with plurals in **-s**, the following, which may be regarded as imperfectly naturalized :

bravo, canto, embryo, grotto, memento, rondo, stiletto,  
piano, solo, domino, tyro, virtuoso (also **-i** [V. 39] ) ;

and such words as **quarto**, **octavo**. Of a few nouns ending in **o**, preceded by a consonant, the spelling is, for the same reason, still unsettled. Examples are

calico, innuendo, mosquito, mulatto, portico.

The tendency, however, is to spell with **-es** these and other such words.

The rarely occurring final **i** is treated like **y** : as **alkali**, **alkalies** ; but (being in less frequent use) **mufti**, **muftis**.

The exceptions under **d.** are matters of spelling : the final sound in all is the same.

The addition of the **-es** is apparently intended to lengthen the sound of **o** after a consonant (lest the addition should suggest the pronunciation **-oss**). After a vowel, **o** has naturally a long sound : hence, **intaglio**, **intaglios**.

The plural of nouns in *-y* after a consonant was regularly formed from the old singular in *-ie* : thus, *ladies* is from *ladie*, or *ladye* (*y* and *i* having been interchangeable from an early period). The final *e* of the singular, being found unnecessary, was dropped, and final *y* was preferred to *i*. But, although in older English we find such plurals as *qualityes*, this form did not supplant the form in *-ies*, probably because an initial *y* for the final syllable might suggest mispronunciation (thus, *qualit-yes*), initial *y* being now given a consonantal sound. This, also, is a mere matter of spelling.

e. Letters, and figures, and a word of any part of speech used as a noun in the sense of "the word so-and-so," usually put an apostrophe (') before the *-s* that forms the plural : thus,

**Dot your i's and cross your t's ;**

**In 999 there are three 9's ;**

**He uses too many I's and me's and my's.**

37. Some of the plurals under a. and c. illustrate the law of language (IV. 40. a.), that, when two forms of a word occur, either they must take different meanings, as *staffs* and *staves* ; or one of them must drop out of use, as, we see above, has happened with many old plurals in *-ves* (see also 40. below).

### 3.—OLD MODES OF FORMATION.

38. The foregoing are the regular and modern modes of forming the plural ; but a few English nouns in very common use form their plurals in ways that are now obsolete. Thus :

a. By a change of sound within, not adding any ending : thus,

**man, men ; woman, women ; foot, feet ; tooth, teeth ;**

**goose, geese ; louse, lice ; mouse, mice :**

the last two have also a change of spelling from *s* to *c*.

In Old English these words were

sing. *man*, *wifman*, *fōt*, *tōth*, *gós*, *lús*, *mús* ;

plur. *men*, *wifmen*, *fēt*, *téth*, *gés*, *lýs*, *mýs*.

Our word *breeches*, the O. E. sing. *bróc*, plur. *bréc*, has conformed to the general rule, but retains its modified form.

As we have seen (IV. 43, c. (3)), the vowel-variation in these words is only an incidental result of an inflectional suffix, not itself a real inflection. In Old English, this vowel-change was not limited to the plural ; the dative suffix of the singular produced the same result : thus, nom. *boc*, "book" ; dat. *béc*.

b. By adding *-en*, with or without other changes : thus,

**ox, oxen ; brother, brethren (or brothers) ; child, children ;**

**cow (in old style) kine.**



The plurals of **brother** and of **cow** are now used in different senses (IV. 40. a.): thus,

**brothers**, related by blood ; **brethren**, of the same community ;  
**cows**, individual ; **kine**, collective.

Of **brethren**, the oldest form was *brothru*: this became in succession *brothre* (IV. 45. c.), *brether* (IV. 43. a.), and *brothren* and **brethren**. The *e* in **brethren** comes from the O. E. dat. *brether* (IV. 43. c. (3)), and the ending *ren* represents two plural suffixes, *ru* and *en*, thus making the word a DOUBLE PLURAL. Before the plural in *-s* became the commonest, *brothru*, on the weakening of the form and force of its plural ending, was assimilated to the then common plurals in *-en* (IV. 47).

So, too, with **children** and **kine**, of which the successive forms were *cildru* (sing. *cild*), *childre* and *childer*, and *childern* and **children** ; *cý* or *ký* (by vowel-variation [IV. 43. c. (3)] from sing. *cú*, “a cow”), and later *kyen* or *kyn*, our **kine** (*e* being added to lengthen the *i*, and so distinguish from *kin*).

In Old English, *-an* (*-en*) was the commonest plural suffix ; hence it was the last to disappear. Examples in words not long obsolete, or still in use in provincial dialects, are :

*een* (O. E. *eagan* [IV. 45. d. (2)] ), “eyes” ; *esen* (O. E. *efesen*, *esen*), “eaves” ; *hosen*, “hose” ; *shoon*, “shoes” ; *pesen*, “pease” ; *toon*, “toes.”

#### 4. FOREIGN FORMATIONS.

39. A considerable number of words taken unchanged from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages.

The commonest of these are

Lat. <i>formula</i> , <i>formulae</i> ;	Lat. <i>appendix</i> , <i>appendices</i> ;
“ <i>genus</i> , <i>genera</i> ;	Gr. <i>miasma</i> , <i>miasmata</i> ;
“ <i>genius</i> , <i>genii</i> ;	“ <i>analysis</i> , <i>analyses</i> ;
“ <i>radius</i> , <i>radii</i> ;	“ <i>phenomenon</i> , <i>phenomena</i> ;
“ <i>stratum</i> , <i>strata</i> ;	Fr. <i>messieurs</i> ;
“ <i>datum</i> , <i>data</i> ;	“ <i>madam</i> , <i>mesdames</i> ;
“ <i>medium</i> , <i>media</i> ;	“ <i>beau</i> , <i>beaux</i> ;
“ <i>basis</i> , <i>bases</i> ;	Ital. <i>virtuoso</i> , <i>virtuosi</i> ;
“ <i>axis</i> , <i>axes</i> ;	“ <i>bandit</i> , <i>banditti</i> ;
“ <i>crisis</i> , <i>crises</i> ;	Heb. <i>seraph</i> , <i>seraphim</i> ;
“ <i>index</i> , <i>indices</i> ;	“ <i>cherub</i> , <i>cherubim</i> .

Of the Lat. *series*, *species*, *superficies*, *apparatus*, the singular and the plural are the same.

But many of these words, being in frequent use, make regular English plurals, as well as foreign ones : thus, for example,

formulas, geniuses, indexes, bandits, virtuosos, seraphs,  
cherubs.

The two forms of plurals, when both established, are used in different senses : thus,

genii, "spirits";	geniuses, "persons of unusual ability";
indices, "signs in Algebra";	indexes, "reference tables in a book";
formulas, "prescribed forms of words";	formulae, "scientific expressions."

Messieurs (shortened to Messrs.) is the Fr. *mes sieurs*, "my masters"; but for the singular we use Mr. (an abbreviation for Mister, *i.e.* Master, an older form), not having adopted the corresponding singular, Monsieur. Madam is the naturalized Fr. *Madame*, the Fr. plural having been adopted unchanged. For the singular, Mrs. (*i.e.*, Mistress, the fem. of Mr.) is generally used as a title prefixed to a name.

40. Most of such words as those given above have been introduced during the Modern English period, the technical ones having been used at first by the educated, and with the foreign plurals. As soon, however, as any of them went into general use, they showed a tendency to follow the natural law (IV. 47) and take English plurals. Confusion, of course, followed, resulting, in some cases, in one form's being selected, and, in others, in both forms' being retained with somewhat different meanings, our convenience having decided the question in both cases. But usage has been by no means uniform. We find that *bisons*, *ideas*, *sphinxes*, *omens*, and *dogmas* have driven out the older *bisontes*, *ideæ*, *sphinges*, *omina*, and *dogmata*, while *genera*, *magi*, *beaux* are preferred to *genuses*, *maguses*, *beaus*; and the inability of the uneducated to feel the force of a foreign plural has caused the formation of such monstrosities as *seraphims*, *cherubims*, and the belief that *stamina*, *effluvia*, etc., are singulars (as was the case also with *alms*, *eaves*, *riches*, at an earlier date).

41. But English adopts also from other languages words that are other parts of speech than nouns, forming their plurals as if they were English nouns : thus,

aliases, ignoramuses, items, bonuses, tenets, extras,  
Te Deums.

#### 5. OTHER EXCEPTIONAL FORMATIONS.

##### (1) *Singular Forms with Plural Meanings.*

42. Some words use, either generally or in certain senses, their singular form with a plural meaning also, instead of forming a proper plural. Thus :

a. Certain names of animals : as

**sheep, deer, swine, neat, fish** (also **fishes**, taken separately) ;

and sundry kinds of fish : as

**cod, mackerel, perch, trout, salmon, shad, pike.**

Most of the words in the first list are neuter in Old English, and have no nom. or acc. plural inflection. These cases, therefore, are of the same form as the corresponding cases of the singular : thus,

**deer**, O. E. *deór*, pl. *deór* ;    **sheep**, O. E. *sceáp*, pl. *sceáp* ;

**swine**, O. E. *swin*, pl. *swin* ;    **neat**, O. E. *neát* (used collectively).

b. Certain words, mostly collectives and names of measures, weights, etc., used with numerals in counting objects or telling their number : thus,

**couple, brace, pair, yoke, dozen, score, gross, ton, head, sail.**

The same peculiarity shows itself in the case of certain nouns compounded with numerals : thus,

**twelvemonth, fortnight, sennight** (that is, “seven nights”) ;

and in the same way we have the singular form in such expressions as

**an eighteen penny book, a three foot rule, an eighty  
gun ship, a ten horse power engine.**

The omission of the plural inflection in these words is probably due to the assimilative influence of the flectionless plurals in a. above (IV. 46. b.), increased by the circumstance that the numeral indicates plurality, and thus renders unnecessary the plural inflection.

c. A few other words : as

**cannon, shot, heathen, folk, people.**

There are few of these words that do not sometimes, in some uses, form a plural like other nouns : thus,

**shot**, “balls” ; **shots**, “discharges” ; **cannon**, collective ;

**cannons**, “individual guns.”<sub>2</sub>

(2) *Singular Forms only.*

43. Some nouns are rarely or never used, except in the singular. These are especially proper names, nouns of material, and abstract nouns (V. 3. 5. and 7).

Some of these nouns do, however, take plural forms.

a. Proper names are capable of forming plurals signifying either more than one individual bearing the same name : as,

**the Smiths and the Browns ; all the Wednesdays of  
the month ;**

or individuals resembling the one to whom the proper name belongs : as,

**the Miltons and the Shakespeares of our century.**

The proper noun has in the latter case become common and significant (V. 8).

The plurals of proper nouns are formed regularly : thus,

**the Smiths, the Catos, the Beattys, the Joneses.**

Usage, however, is not uniform on this point ; for proper names in very common use are sometimes (but irregularly) treated as common nouns : thus,

**the Maries, the Henries ;**

and some writers form the plural of proper nouns thus :

**the Smith's, the Percy's, the Cato's.**

But the latter mode of formation is unjustifiable, as such forms might be confused with the possessives.

b. Most nouns of material are also used as names of articles made of that material, or kinds of it, or masses of it, and so on ; and as such have plurals : as,

**a ship's coppers ; the leads of a roof ; the clays and  
gravels of the west.**

c. And a great many abstract nouns form plurals as signifying the quality in separate acts or exhibitions (V. 24) : thus,

**a good man's charities ; the heats of summer ;  
the loves of the angels ; the beauties of its form.**

### (3) *Plural Forms only.*

44. Some nouns, on the other hand, which are the names of masses or collections of single objects, or of objects consisting of several parts, are used only in the plural, and are construed (that is, "combined with other words") as such. Examples are

**thanks, proceeds, filings, billiards, bowels, victuals,  
vitals, wages, annals, nuptials, breeches, drawers,  
tongs, pincers, means.**

So, too, with some foreign plurals : as,

**aborigines, antipodes, literati, minutiae, errata, stamina.**

The following nouns also, which are derived from singular forms, are now construed as if they were plural :

**alms, riches, pease, eaves.**

**Alms** (O. E. *almesse*, *almesse*, *almes* (from the Greek), with a plural *almesses* and *elmessen*) is still sometimes used as a singular : thus,

None was heard to ask an alms.

**Riches** (O. E. *richesse* [O. Fr. *richesse*], with a plural *richesses*) was sometimes used as a singular in older English : thus,

In one hour is so great riches come to naught.

For pease and eaves (which had once a pl. *eveses*), see V. 36. c. and 38. b.

The plural construction in the case of alms, etc., is due to the combined influence of the plural form, and of the circumstance that the words suggest a plural meaning. **Summons**, M. E. *somouns* (O. Fr. *semonse*, fem. of *semons*, perf. participle of *semondre*, "to summon"), on the other hand, which also is plural in form, though etymologically singular, is still singular, with plural summonses. **Molasses**, also (Port. *melaço*), like summons, is really singular, and should be construed as such.

#### (4) *Plural Forms with Singular Meanings.*

45. We have seen that some singular nouns are frequently construed as plural (V. 12 and 42). Some plural nouns, on the other hand, are construed as singular, being regarded as one whole. Examples are

**amends, bellows, gallows, means** (sometimes singular),  
**news, odds, pains** ("trouble"), **sessions, shambles,**  
**tidings, innings.**

Also names of branches of study ending in **ics**, when they are the names of collective bodies of doctrine. Examples are

**ethics, mathematics, physics, optics, politics.**

Of many words that are now plurals only, the singular is found in older English in the same sense as the modern plurals. Examples of older singular forms are

**amend, gallow, mean, nuptial, pain, tiding, thank, wage.**

The circumstance that the Greek words are plural, from which are derived our names of sciences in **-ics**, conjoined to the fact that these sciences treat of various subjects, probably caused us to give the adjective in **-ic** the plural form, just as we do in the case of **eatables, sweets, vitals**, and so on. In making logic singular, we follow the Greek usage, which supplies after the adjective the word for "art."

#### (5) *Plural Forms with Altered Meanings.*

46. And, again, a few nouns seem to have plurals with altered meanings. Examples are

**iron, irons; corn, corns; good, goods; salt, salts,**





d. In the plurals of titles, usage varies : we may say  
     the Mr. John Smiths, the Miss Smiths,  
     the Doctor Smiths.

as well as

    the Messrs. John Smith, the Misses Smith,  
     the Doctors Smith.

The latter mode is the more correct mode of formation, but it is not so commonly used as the former.

When, however, the (which combines the parts) is omitted, we must say,

    Messrs. Smith, Messrs. John and Thomas Smith,  
     Misses Smith, Misses Jane and Louisa Smith.

When two titles are united, the latter is now generally pluralized, in accordance with the general law : as,

    major-generals, governor-generals, lieutenant-governors.

But a few obsolete expressions occur, in which, after the French idiom, both parts are pluralized : thus,

    knights-templars, knights-errants, lords-justices.

Note also the modern men-servants, women-servants.

## II.—Case.

### 1. NUMBER OF CASE-FORMS AND CASES.

49. English nouns have only two case-forms ; one of them, the POSSESSIVE or GENITIVE, shows possession ; the other is used in all other relations.

Since, however, some pronouns have one case-form—I, he, they, who, etc.—for use when the word is subject, and another—me, him, them, whom, etc.—for use when the word is object of a verb or preposition, it is customary to distinguish these two different uses of the noun also, and to speak of the SUBJECTIVE or NOMINATIVE case, and of the OBJECTIVE or ACCUSATIVE case of the noun ; although, in fact, the two are always the same in form (III. 12-17).

50. Besides these three cases, we find in Old English a dative and, according to some, an instrumental case ; but no noun possesses a distinctive form for each case. The nominative and the accusative of some nouns are alike, as are also the dative and instrumental cases of others. After the Conquest, the dative lost its suffix and became confounded with the accusative (I. 35. and IV. 45. c.), but the dative plural suffix still remains in one or two adverbs derived from nouns, as *whilom* (O. E. *hwilum*, “at times,” dat. pl. of *hwil*, “time”). No traces exist

in Modern English of the suffix of the noun-instrumental case, nor of a nominative or an accusative suffix. Under the pronoun and the adverb, we shall, however, see other traces of O. E. case-suffixes.

51. All relations marked by case-endings can be more accurately defined by prepositions or separable prefixes; for case-endings are generally few, whereas the relations to be expressed may become numerous. The language, therefore, of a progressive people usually throws off its case-endings by degrees, substituting therefor its prepositions, of which there is an abundant supply. This natural tendency was hastened in English, as we have seen, by the influence of the Danish and the Norman French.

## 2. THE POSSESSIVE.

52. The possessive case in the singular number is made by adding to the noun an *-s*, before which an apostrophe is written: thus, *'s*. This apostrophe shows that the letter *e* of *-es*, the old sign of the possessive, is omitted; and it prevents one from confusing this form with plurals in *-s*.

53. The sign of the possessive follows the same rules as to pronunciation as the *-s* of the plural (V. 34.); but it is never written with *-es*. Thus, in *cat's* it is pronounced as *s*, in *dog's* as *z*; in *sex's* and *Charles's* and *church's* it makes a syllable and has the *z*-sound, the *e* being omitted to prevent confusion with the plural forms.

But a noun of more than one syllable ending in an *s* or *z*-sound sometimes (like a plural; see below) omits the possessive sign, in order to avoid the disagreeable repetition of hissing letters (V. 34). In such a case, an apostrophe is written alone at the end of the word: thus,

the princess' favorite; for conscience' sake.

54. Plurals not ending in *s* make their possessive case in the same way as singulars (IV. 47): thus,

men's, children's, mice's, sheep's.

Other plurals make no change in pronunciation for their possessive cases; but an apostrophe is written after the *-s*—thus, *s'*—as sign to the eye, of the possessive use: thus,

cats', dogs', ladies', horses', judges'.

55. As in the case of our plural suffix *s*, this possessive suffix is the representative of only one of the O. E. genitive suffixes. These were, for the singular, *-es*, *-an*, *-e*, and *-a*; and for the plural, *-a* and *-ena*: as in *smithes*, "smith's"; *steorran*, "stars"; *róde*, "rood's"; *suna*, "son's"; *smitha*, "smiths"; *steorrena*, "stars"; *róda*, "roods"; *suna*, "sons"; *-es* being limited to certain masculine and neuter nouns.

In the thirteenth century, these were reduced, in the singular, to *-es* and *-e*; and, in the plural, to *-ene* (or *-en*) and *-es*, the latter often replacing the others. In the fourteenth century, *-es* (or *-s*) became the ordinary suffix for all genders and both numbers. As in the case of the plural (V. 35), this suffix formed in pronunciation a separate syllable wherever it occurred; but, by the beginning of the Modern English period, the present usage obtained, with the natural result of dropping the silent *e*.

56. The apostrophe began to be used in the singular towards the end of the seventeenth century, and in the plural still later. In the singular, it marks the elision of the vowel of the suffix, and was at first used probably to distinguish the possessive from the plural: the full form is still seen in *Wednesday* (O. E. *Wodenes dæg*, "Woden's day"), and heard in the sound of the possessive of certain words. In the plural, the apostrophe has no etymological value, being merely a sign for the eye, added because plurals ending in *s* were thought to be without the case-sign.

57. When the origin of the possessive inflection was forgotten, 's was for a long time supposed to be a corruption of the pronoun *his*. This erroneous belief was, no doubt, strengthened, if not suggested, by the fact that *-is* (another form of *-es*) was sometimes written apart from the stem: thus, we find in the *Book of Hawking* (about the time of Henry VI.):

anoyn<sup>t</sup> the hawke is erys ("hawk's ears") with oile of olive.

Accordingly we find, especially in works of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, such expressions as,

For Jesus Christ his sake, Mordecai his matters,  
John Smith his book.

This theory, as we have seen, historical grammar has proved to be incorrect; besides it does not account for the fem. and pl. possessive forms of the pronouns *hers*, *ours*, etc., or of nouns that add 's, nor for the formation from *he*, of *his* itself.

58. The following compounds, among others, contain the old genitive suffix *-es*, or a remnant thereof:

Tuesday, O. E. *Tiwes dæg*, "Tiw's day";

Wednesday, see 56. above;

Thursday O. E. *Thunres dæg*, "the thunderer's day";

(Saturday, O. E. *Sæternes dæg*, "Sæter's (or Saturn's) day," once contained it); and many names of places, as

Wansborough, "Woden's borough"; also *datsy*, M. E. *dayesy*, O. E. *dæges ége*, "day's eye."

And the following compounds once contained other genitive suffixes:

lady-day, M. E. *ladie day*, "our lady's day";

Friday, O. E. *Frige dæg*, "Friga's day";

Sunday, O. E. *Sunnan dæg*, "sun's day";

Monday, O. E. *Mónan dæg*, "moon's day; and one remains in

Witenagemot, "the meeting (O. E. *gemét*) of the wise men (O. E. *witena*)."

59. For the possessive case in almost all its uses we can put the objective with of: thus,

the cat's head, or the head of the cat ;  
the king's enemies, or the enemies of the king.

And many nouns are rarely or never used in the possessive, the other mode of expression being employed instead.

60. In Modern English, the possessive is used to express possession only, except in a few instances ; as, for example,

a father's love, Charles's murder, Ireland's isle, a year's study.

Consequently, it is now used chiefly in reference to living things, which alone, properly speaking, can possess. In poetry and impassioned language, its use is, of course, more general.

The Old English genitive had a wide range of use : it expressed, among others, the ideas of "time when," "measure," "value," "age," "quality." Examples are

*ussa tida*, "in our times" ;  
*ðnes geðres lamb*, "a lamb of one  
year" ;

*ynces lang*, "an inch long" ;  
*fægeres andwlitan*, "of fair  
countenance."

61. In compound nouns, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of the whole compound, of whatever kind it may be : thus, **his father-in-law's house.**

62. The same rule is followed in the case of a combination of two names, of a name preceded by a title, of a noun preceded or followed by descriptive or limiting words, and so on : thus,

**Mr. John Smith's horse ; the King of England's crown ;  
Thomas Robinson, Esq.'s, residence ; his dead master  
Edward's memory ; at my cousin William Thompson's ;  
such a man as Smith's hat ; Mr. What do you call him's  
house.**

63. Even when nouns are connected by **and** or **or**, the possessive sign is added only to the last of them, when they form a compound notion : thus,

**John and Mary's book, God and Nature's hand,  
a fortnight or three weeks' possession.**

In older English, we find the following constructions :

**his brother's death, the Duke of Clarence.  
for King Henry's sake, the Sixth.**

### 3.—THE DIRECT AND THE INDIRECT OBJECTIVE.

64. There are certain uses of the noun (or pronoun) which represent another case, one which was formerly distinguished

in English, by a difference of form, from the nominative, possessive, and objective, and which is still so distinguished in many languages—the so-called DATIVE case (*dative* means “giving,” this case being the one to use after verbs of “giving”). It expresses the relation usually signified by **to** or **for**, as the possessive expresses that signified by **of**.

Thus, instead of saying,

**I sent a book to my friend,**

we may say,

**I sent my friend a book;**

instead of

**He made a coat for the man,**

we may say,

**He made the man a coat.**

**Friend** and **man**, in the latter phrases, have really just as good a right to be called “datives” as **friend** and **man** after **to** and **for** in the former phrases have to be called “objectives.”

65. But as there are no words in English, even pronouns, which have for such dative uses a special form, different from the objective, we call a word so used an objective of the INDIRECT OBJECT; and distinguish the other, when necessary, as the DIRECT OBJECT.

#### 4.—THE NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

66. Nouns have no distinction of *person*: that is to say, a noun used as subject takes the verb always in the same person, the third, even though used by the speaker about himself, or in addressing another: thus,

**The subscriber gives notice;    Is your honor well?**

But we often address a person or thing by name: thus,

**O God!        Ye stars!        See here, my friend;**

**What do you mean, you blockhead?**

Some languages have for this use a special form, which is called the “vocative” case; we use the subjective or nominative case; and we may distinguish it, when thus used, as the VOCATIVE-NOMINATIVE or NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

67. A nominative of address is never a member of a sentence; it forms no part of either subject or predicate, but stands by itself, like an interjection. But it may have the same words,

or phrases, or even clauses, added to it that the other cases have, by way of limitation or description. Thus, for example :

Your Grace of York, set forward !  
O great Sciolto ! O my more than father !  
Our Father which art in heaven.

#### 5.—EXAMPLES OF DECLENSION.

68. Examples of the complete inflection, or declension, of an English noun, are, then, as follows :

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nominative and Objective. }	<b>cat</b>	<b>cats</b>	<b>dress</b>	<b>dresses</b>	<b>man</b>	<b>men</b>
Genitive or Possessive. }	<b>cat's</b>	<b>cats'</b>	<b>dress's</b>	<b>dresses'</b>	<b>man's</b>	<b>men's</b>

69. In Old English there were two principal declensions—the Vowel declension, mainly limited to stems which originally ended in *a*, although there were remains of those in *i* and *u*; and the Consonant declension, limited to stems ending in *n*, only fragments remaining of those in *-r*, *-nd*, and some other letters. The following table exhibits the principal forms of Old English declensions with their commonest Early and Middle English representatives. The latter illustrate also the processes of assimilation and phonetic decay by which the Modern forms have been evolved. It must be remembered, however, that between the Conquest and the Modern English period, a great deal of confusion prevailed in inflections themselves as well as in their spelling (See also 35., 50., 51., and 55. above).

	Old Eng.	Early and Mid. Eng.	Mod. Eng.	Old Eng.	Early and Mid. Eng.	Mod. Eng.
SINGULAR.						
Nom . . . .	<i>ēage</i>	<i>eye</i>	<b>eye</b>	<i>hors</i>	<i>hors</i>	<b>horse</b>
Gen. . . . .	<i>ēagan</i>	<i>eye</i>	<b>eye's</b>	<i>horses</i>	<i>horses</i>	<b>horse's</b>
Dat. . . . .	<i>ēagan</i>	<i>eye</i>	<b>eye</b>	<i>horse</i>	<i>horse</i>	<b>horse</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>ēage</i>	<i>eye</i>	<b>eye</b>	<i>hors</i>	<i>hors</i>	<b>horse</b>

PLURAL.						
Nom . . . .	<i>ēagan</i>	<i>eyen</i>	<b>eyes</b>	<i>hors</i>	<i>hors</i>	<b>horses</b>
Gen. . . . .	<i>ēagena</i>	<i>eyene</i>	<b>eyes'</b>	<i>horsa</i>	<i>horse</i>	<b>horses'</b>
Dat. . . . .	<i>ēagum</i>	<i>eyen</i>	<b>eyes</b>	<i>horsum</i>	<i>horse</i>	<b>horses</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>ēagan</i>	<i>eyen</i>	<b>eyes</b>	<i>hors</i>	<i>hors</i>	<b>horses</b>

SINGULAR.						
Nom . . . .	<i>fēld</i>	<i>fēld</i>	<b>field</b>	<i>dēd</i>	<i>dede</i>	<b>deed</b>
Gen. . . . .	<i>fēldes</i>	<i>fēldes</i>	<b>field's</b>	<i>dēde</i>	<i>dede</i>	<b>deed's</b>
Dat. . . . .	<i>fēlda</i>	<i>fēlde</i>	<b>field</b>	<i>dēde</i>	<i>dede</i>	<b>deed</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>fēld</i>	<i>fēld</i>	<b>field</b>	<i>dēd, -e</i>	<i>dede</i>	<b>deed</b>



## PLURAL.

Nom . . . .	<i>feldas</i>	<i>feldes</i>	<b>fields</b>	<i>dáda, -e</i>	<i>dede, -en, -es</i>	<b>deeds</b>
Gen. . . .	<i>felda</i>	<i>feldene</i>	<b>fields'</b>	<i>dáda</i>	<i>dedes, -e</i>	<b>deeds'</b>
Dat. . . .	<i>feldum</i>	<i>feldes</i>	<b>fields</b>	<i>dádatum</i>	<i>dede, -en, -es</i>	<b>deeds</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>feldas</i>	<i>feldes</i>	<b>fields</b>	<i>dáda, -e</i>	<i>dede</i>	<b>deeds</b>

## SINGULAR.

Nom . . . .	<i>fæt</i>	<i>fat</i>	<b>vat</b>	<i>bóc</i>	<i>bok</i>	<b>book</b>
Gen. . . . .	<i>fates</i>	<i>fates</i>	<b>vat's</b>	<i>béc, bóce</i>	<i>bokes</i>	<b>book's</b>
Dat. . . . .	<i>fæte</i>	<i>fate</i>	<b>vat</b>	<i>béc</i>	<i>bok, -e</i>	<b>book</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>fæte</i>	<i>fat</i>	<b>vat</b>	<i>béc</i>	<i>bok</i>	<b>book</b>

## PLURAL.

Nom . . . .	<i>fatu</i>	<i>fate, -en, -es</i>	<b>vats</b>	<i>béc</i>	<i>bokes</i>	<b>books</b>
Gen. . . . .	<i>fata</i>	<i>fate, -es, -ene</i>	<b>vats'</b>	<i>bóca</i>	<i>bokes</i>	<b>books'</b>
Dat. . . . .	<i>fatum</i>	<i>fate, -en, -es</i>	<b>vats</b>	<i>bócum</i>	<i>bokes or -e</i>	<b>books</b>
Acc. . . . .	<i>fatu</i>	<i>fate, -en, -es</i>	<b>vats</b>	<i>béc</i>	<i>bokes</i>	<b>books.</b>

## NOUN-EQUIVALENTS.

70. Words that are not usually nouns, also combinations of words, even phrases and clauses, are sometimes used in sentences with the value of nouns. They are then said to be used SUBSTANTIVELY, or as SUBSTANTIVES (II. 19.).

71. Adjectives are especially often used substantively. Thus:

a. Some adjectives are used with the value of an abstract noun in the singular, meaning "that which is so and so," or the like: thus,

Avoid the wrong and choose the right.

So also,

We judge the future by the past;

He was in the thickest of the fight.

b. Almost any adjective may be used as a plural noun, signifying the persons in general that have the character described by the adjective: thus,

Give to the poor; The virtuous alone are happy;  
How sleep the brave! The dead are more than the living.

c. Many adjectives are used as nouns, either in the singular or in the plural, to signify a person or thing, such as would be described by the adjective. Examples are

a noble, the nobles, a brave ("Indian warrior"),  
the ancients, blacks and whites, his betters, an elder.

So, especially, an adjective that means belonging to a certain country, or race, or sect, or party : thus,

an American, the Americans, a Greek, a Lutheran,  
a Stoic, the Asiatics, Medes and Persians.

But most adjectives of nation ending in a sibilant sound (s or z or sh) are used as nouns signifying persons in the plural only, and form compounds, with **man** in the singular : thus,

an Englishman, the English ; a Dutchman, the Dutch.

An adjective of country or race also signifies the language of that country or race : thus,

English is our mother-tongue ;  
Say it in French ; He reads Chinese.

Unlike the first two classes (a. and b.), those under c. (excepting the little sub-class last mentioned) often form plurals like nouns.

The forms under a. b. and c. originated, no doubt, in ellipses. The noun, being readily understood, is left out ; and the adjective assumes the value of the noun phrase. When, as in most of the examples under c., the adjective is capable of being inflected like a noun, it is proper to consider it as having been converted into a derivative noun (IV. 16), rather than as being an adjective used substantively.

72. Adverbs are sometimes used with the value of nouns : thus,  
the ups and downs, since then, from abroad.

73. The infinitive of a verb is really a verbal noun, and all its constructions are to be explained as such : thus,

To see is to believe ;	Seeing is believing ;
He is tired of running ;	He likes running ;
He wants to leave ;	He dared not leave.

74. A clause is often used with the value of a noun in another sentence (II. 47.) : thus,

What he does is well done ; They saw that he was ill.

75. A word of any kind may be used as a noun, when we mean by it "the word so and so, with the meaning that belongs to it" : thus,

Loved is a verb ; Truly is a derivative adverb ;  
He promised without an if or a but ;  
When I was young—ah ! woful when !

Names of letters and figures and so on are like these.

Sometimes a phrase or a clause is used in the same way : thus,

My more than father;      A ne'er do well;  
The saddest of words are "It might have been";  
A bitter and perplexed "What shall I do?"

## EXERCISES.

### EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

#### § 2.

1. Discuss the merits of the following :—

- (a) A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing.
- (b) A noun is the name given to any person, place, or thing of which we speak.
- (c) A noun is the name of any object of sense or subject of thought.
- (d) The noun names : the noun is an invariable name ; the pronoun, variable ; the noun is defined by the following marks :—It may be the subject or the object of a sentence ; it is the name of the thing itself, while the pronoun names by means of a reference ; the noun is changed or inflected for number, case, and gender ; while the infinitive of the verb is not inflected at all.
- (e) The noun names or denotes objects given in external reality (concrete objects), or imagined analogously to these (abstract objects), and the qualities inherent in them, which, by their form or meaning, indicate their attributive reference to the objects. (See II. 19.)

#### §§ 3—24.

2. Discuss the merits of the following classifications of nouns :—

- (a) Proper, Common (or General), and Abstract.
- (b) Proper, singular, meaningless nouns ; Common, general, significant nouns ; Collective nouns ; Abstract nouns, including Adjective Abstract and Verb Abstract ; and Material nouns.
- (c) Names of sorts (or "individuals of a sort or kind"), Proper names, Collective names ; names of materials.
- (d) Concrete nouns, including (1) Proper nouns, (2) Mass nouns (*i.e.*, "names of masses"), (3) Collective nouns, (4) Class nouns ; Abstract nouns, including (1) Quality nouns (*e.g.*, "bitterness"), (2) Action nouns (*e.g.*, "growth"), (3) Condition nouns (*e.g.*, "health"), (4) Relative nouns (*e.g.*, "superiority").

3. Explain how a proper name may become plural and remain proper. Form sentences to show that *Roman* may be both a proper and a common noun.

4. Explain : "The Abstract noun is known, first, from its meaning ; next from appearing in the singular form ; and, thirdly, by its derivation."

5. Classify the following according to meaning, assigning reasons :—

Milton, Cæsars, Thomases, knife, conqueror, mob, clergy, gold, furlong, sleeper, death, thinking, to think, goodness, excess, nobility, mannikin, streamlet, pollard, dotard, Fitz-Herbert, cow, filly, child, deer, monarch, she-bear, author, peace, the Straits of Dover, King John, the Queen, truths, a truth, conversation, conversations, knowledge, share, shares.

6. Explain : "Gender in language belongs, not to things, but to words. In English we express only sex : that is, we merely have different words to express the male and the female of living things."

7. Give the other gender-nouns corresponding to the following :—

mankind, sire, roe, merman, Jew, peer, votary, arbiter, neuter, porter, negro, lord, bride, witch, hero, heritor, buck, colt, gaffer, hart, milter, monk, rake, sloven, wizard.

8. Discuss the etymology of the following gender-nouns. —

lord, lady; lad, lass; nephew, niece; witch, wizard; man, woman; gander, goose; duck, drake; bride, bridegroom; duke, duchess; emperor empress; marquis, marchioness; master, mistress; nurse; widow, widower.

9. Point out the good and the evil results of an artificial system of genders.

10. Show the unsuitability of the term *common gender* sometimes applied to names that are applicable to both sexes, as, for instance, cousin, child, parent.

### §§ 25—30.

11. Classify the following according to form, analyzing the derivatives and the compounds, and translating each into an equivalent phrase:—

(1) ditch, chick, woof, hillock, locket, spigot, splinter, hunter, lark, barnacle, gosling, armlet, braggart, wisdom, lair, fodder, hunting, morning, Browning, knowledge, income, landscape, to-day, tourist.

(2) grief, popular, registrar, distance, honesty, violence, benefit, geology, democracy, crisis, advice, circuit, coheir, ambition, effect, ignominy, intelligence, result, support, suspense, eulogy, hypothesis, prosody, system, imagination.

(3) moonlight, windmill, cock-crowing, bull-baiting, princess-royal, windfall, carving-knife, goodwill, freeman, he-goat, scarecrow, outlaw, after-thought, outgoing, outlay, offset, by-gones, customary, drawback, hearsay, make-believe, garden-fruit, hotel-waiters, horse-soldiers.

12. (a) From the following nouns form other nouns, giving the force of the added part:—

cab, sight, name, head, law, current, priest, child, hate, bishop, fellow, execution, hill, squire.

(b) From the following adjectives form nouns as above:—

bold, free, false, hard, foreign, young, dear.

(c) From the following verbs form nouns as above:—

speak, choose, hold, come, sent, lock, build, rhyme, meet, know, break, pass, ally, commit.

### § 31.

13. Criticize: “Nouns have modifications of four kinds: Persons, Numbers, Genders, Cases.”

14. If from *abbot* we have the derivative *abbess*, the latter being a base of inflection, as in *abbess's book*; why is *men* not considered a derivative from *man*, since we say *men's books*, *men* being here a base of inflection?

15. Explain: “The substantive inflectional forms which have remained to the English tongue rest essentially upon the Old English strong declension of the masculine gender.”

### §§ 32—48.

16. Pluralize, when possible, the following, stating the principle involved:—

bamboo, embryo, bureau, son, guy, money, soliloquy, Salmagundi, Livy, Pythagoras, cupola, anathema, apostrophe, simile, calice, cargo, echo, buffalo, hero, wo, solo, Nero, Hercules, Carolina, Sicily, Alleghany,

hourl, America, Ajax, Venus, Miss Bell, Lady Rossmore, president-elect, ex-mayor, lord-mayor, belief, fief, oaf, hoof, calif, distaff, foster-child, half-penny, dormouse, German, leman, caiman, hanger-on, pianoforte, queen-consort, habeas corpus, ignis fatuus, louis d'or, tête-a-tête, coffee, council, jury, saliva, scoria, dogma, stigma, decorum, equilibrium, laudanum, datum, asparagus, cactus, calculus, magus, chorus, surplus, ignoramus, metropolis, basis, chrysalis, epidermis, virtue, billet-doux, index, hexagon, stamen, and, or, yes, no, two, fourth, +, valley, Charles, phenomenon, stratum, 5, aide-camp, die; Peter, the hermit.

17. Discuss the following formations, with respect to number :—

annals, assets, goggles, hustings, filings, statics, firearms, vermicelli, regalia, belles-lettres, cloves, fetters, fireworks, premises, amends, oats, woolens, remains, gentry, jury, grouse, bellows, vermin, fry, news, odds, shambles, means, manners, fish, pike, brick, pains, Ides, pease, pence, vespers, yeomanry, poultry, twelve-month, grounds, sulks, liberties, brace, head (of cattle), coppers, silks, Indies, Apennines, Netherlands.

18. Discuss the peculiarities of number in the following :—

He has no objections, I was in his favors, I will requite your loves,  
Break not your sleeps for that.

### §§ 49—69.

19. Name and explain the different noun cases and case-forms in the following :—

1. The servant brought his master a horse. 2. John struck James a blow. 3. The master taught the boys grammar. 4. He asked the man a question. 5. Envy no man his honors. 6. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice. 7. Happy is the bride the sun shines on. 8. Meat and matins hinder no man's journey. 9. He did his master's work for righteousness' sake. 10. Reproof never does a wise man harm. 11. So ended the day's sorrows. 12. Look, look, Richard.

20. Write, with explanations thereof, the possessive cases, singular and plural, of

mother, man, girl, John, righteousness, woman, Xerxes, sheep, fish, Moses, rose, people, tree, King of Rome, What-do-you-call-him.

21. State and illustrate the ordinary differences between the possessive case and the adjective phrase with of.

22. Discuss any case peculiarities in the following :—

1. By the blue lake's silver beach. 2. Of Amanda, our friend Loveless's wife. 3. To his dead master Edward's royal memory. 4. Forgiveness of the queen, my sister's wrongs. 5. The Psalms are David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish people. 6. In wonder-works of God and Nature's hand. 7. Oliver and Boyd's printing office. 8. After a fortnight or three weeks' possession. 9. For honour's, pride's, religion's, virtue's sake. 10. The sage's and the poet's theme.

23. Give definitions of the following terms as applied to nouns :—

*Abstract, Concrete, Proper, Common, Collective, Gender, Diminutive, Augmentative, Simple, Derivative, Compound, Inflection, Number, Singular, Plural, Case, Nominative, Direct object, Indirect object, Nominative & Address.*

24. Explain and illustrate the following statements :—

1. "The so called cases discharge the functions of four separate parts of speech, viz., the noun, adjective, adverb, and interjection.
2. "With the exception of the possessive case and the mark of the plural, English nouns are merely stems of words."

## PARSING.

Besides analysis, grammatical exercises include a complete account of each word as it stands in the sentence of which it forms a part. This account (or description, or definition) is known as **PARSING** (the term is from the Lat. *pars*, "a part," and literally means telling the *parts* of speech in a sentence). It includes telling :

A. What **KIND** of word it is. This implies telling :

1. What part of speech it is ;
2. To which of the various classes and sub-classes into which that part of speech is divided it belongs.

B. What is its grammatical **FORM**. This implies telling :

1. Whether it is simple, or derivative, or compound ;
2. If it is an inflected word, what is its form as such : that is, of what number, case, person, tense, mood it is. And, in connection with this, the word should be more or less fully inflected, to show what its various inflectional forms are.

As, however, the first of these heads often supposes an advanced state of grammatical knowledge, the question of a word's derivation or composition may, at the discretion of the teacher, be omitted in the case of difficult words, or, for a time, in the case of all words.

C. What is its **CONSTRUCTION** : that is, what part it plays in the sentence to which it belongs, in what way it is combined with other words to make up the sentence.

*Construction* means "building together"; the sentence is thought of as a *structure* or "building," as something *built up* by joining in a proper manner its various parts, the *parts of speech* that compose it. The various constructions of any part of speech are, therefore, the various ways in which it admits of being combined or put together with other parts of speech in making sentences.

All the most usual constructions of the different parts of speech have been explained in Chapters II. and III., and none but easy ones occur in the exercises on the Etymology. In the case, however, of constructions not explained in these chapters, the teacher should at once take up the paragraphs in the Syntax in which they are explained, thus teaching Syntax incidentally in connection with the exercises on the Etymology. Afterwards, when studying Syntax, the pupil will be enabled to systematize his knowledge of constructions thus incidentally acquired, and at the same time to understand with greater ease the more difficult ones therein dealt with also.

There are various styles of parsing : a fuller style, when every detail is given about the word to be parsed, with the reason for everything ; and a briefer, in which only the matters of most importance are mentioned, and the reasons omitted. The teacher



must determine at any time which style shall be expected. He will naturally begin with the fuller, and pass gradually to the briefer,\* when the other becomes a mere burdensome repetition of things well understood and familiar; but he should exact from the pupil at all stages of his progress a full explanation of such etymological or syntactical difficulties as may be encountered. He should also remember that there are few difficulties connected with the ordinary parsing of an English word except those that concern its *kind* and its *construction*. Very often it will be sufficient to confine the parsing to these two points. In writing out parsing exercises, any intelligible abbreviation may be used.

In parsing a word it is well to deal with the different particulars in a certain order, but the pupil should, as far as possible, be required to give his explanations in his own language. Generally speaking, a *set form of expression on any subject should be avoided*; and, when it is not possible to vary much the expression of a thought, the teacher should, by frequent questioning, make sure that the pupil has a thorough comprehension of the meaning of any technical terms used in the explanations or descriptions.

#### EXAMPLE OF PARSING NOUNS.

**My brother laid the paintings on John's writing-desk.**

The first thing to be done here, as *always*, is analyze the sentence (pp. 49 and 50). The bare subject is to be first taken up and parsed, and then its complements; afterwards the predicate and its complements are to be dealt with in the same order. In general, a word modified by another is to be parsed before that other. *This is a rule of highest importance.*

We begin, then, with **brother** :

**Brother** is a noun, because it is the name of something (namely, the name of a living being); a common noun, because it belongs alike to every individual of a class; a gender-noun, because it implies a distinction of sex; masculine, because it denotes only a male being (the corresponding feminine being sister); it is a simple noun, because it cannot be taken apart into simpler English elements; singular, because it means only one of its class; it is inflected thus: **brother, brother's, brothers, brothers'**; it is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the sentence, the subject-nominative of the verb **laid**.

Of **my**, it is enough to say here that it is an adjective modifying **brother**, showing *whose* brother is meant.

Of **laid**, again, we need say only that it is a verb, the bare predicate of the sentence, having for its subject the noun **brother**.

The noun **paintings**, again, we parse completely, but in a briefer form :

**Paintings** is a noun, common; a derivative from the verb **paint** (as signifying *something painted*); of the plural number (because it denotes more than one of the things denoted by **painting**); and in the objective case, the object of the verb **laid**, being added to the verb to show what was laid.

**The** is an adjective word called an article, modifying **paintings**.

**Writing-desk** is a common noun; a compound, made up of **writing** and **desk** (meaning "a desk for writing on"); in the objective case singular, object of the preposition **on**, being joined by the preposition to the verb **laid**, in order to show *where* the books were laid.

**John's** is a simple noun; proper (because used to distinguish a certain individual from others of his class); masculine; in the possessive case

singular ; and it modifies **writing-desk**, being added to it to show *whose* **writing-desk** is meant.

Of **on**, finally, it is enough to say that it is a preposition, joining its object **writing-desk** to the verb **laid**.

Pupils who have already had a training in elementary grammar should parse as fully as they can all the other words in each exercise.

#### EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE IN PARSING NOUNS.

For practice in parsing, pupils may be made to turn back to the exercises already given under the preceding chapters ; or they may be directed to the various illustrative sentences in the text ; or to sentences made by the teacher or pupils, and written out upon the board ; or to sentences selected by the teacher and written in the same way ; or to passages in the other text-books which the class is using—*anything to make variety in the exercise, and rid it of a mechanical character.*

From 1 to 18 of the following examples are given to illustrate special and exceptional points in the form and the function of the noun ; from 19 to 32, in the form and the function of noun phrases and clauses.

1. The chambers of sickness and distress are mostly peopled with the victims of intemperance and sloth. 2. I have bought five yoke of oxen. 3. I will make thee a great nation. 4. Cool shades and dews are round my way. 5. In this place ran Cassius' dagger through. 6. Some so-called geniuses have little genius. 7. His brother pirate's hand he wrung. 8. The vile alone are vain ; the great are proud. 9. Thy songs were made for the pure and free. 10. O night and darkness ! ye are wondrous strong. 11. He strode haughtily into the thickest of the group. 12. From gold to gray, our wild sweet day of Indian summer fades too soon. 13. A hundred of the foe shall be a banquet for the mountain birds. 14. So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not to those fresh morning drops upon the rose. 15. He giveth his beloved sleep. 16. Jove but laughs at lovers' perjury. 17. They bring down my gray hairs with sorrow to the grave. 18. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of Fate. 19. He wants to see who is there. 20. He fears being thought foolish. 21. To be thus is nothing. 22. But are you sure that Benedick loves Beatrice so entirely ? 23. From that moment she was aware that I fully appreciated her situation. 24. Mr. P. was desirous that Fanny should continue her journey. 25. Persuasion in me grew that I was heard with favor. 26. That he really was a wonderful child we have evidence. 27. My husband has no idea that I have been here. 28. See whether it be well with thy brethren. 29. I wonder if he cautioned her. 30. Look at where the sister of the king of France sits wringing her hands. 31. Have they any sense of why they sing ? 32. Father of light and life, thou God supreme ; O teach me what is good ! teach me thyself !

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## CHAPTER VI.

## PRONOUNS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. A pronoun, as we have seen (II. 17), is a kind of substitute for a noun : that is, instead of using a noun to designate an object, we may use a pronoun ; and, consequently, we may designate by a pronoun an object for which we have no name. There is, however, no reason to believe that pronouns were invented for this purpose. They are among the oldest parts of speech, and have undergone many changes in form. Their antiquity is shown also by the irregularity of their inflections—a characteristic they possess in common with the oldest verbs and adjectives.

2. Pronouns have, in general, the same uses as nouns have ; but pronouns are scarcely ever modified by adjectives placed before them and directly qualifying them. Thus, for example, we can say

these men, good men, but not these you, good we.

3. Some of the words used as pronouns are used also as adjectives, modifying a noun that is expressed, instead of standing for one that is omitted : thus, we say either

**This man is my father, or This is my father.**

This distinction between the substantive and the adjective value of the same word, or between its uses as a pronoun and as a pronominal adjective, should always be clearly and accurately made.

## CHANGES OF FORM.

4. Pronouns have also the same inflection as nouns : namely, for number and case. And some of them, as has been pointed out above, have for the objective case a special form, different from the nominative.

One class of pronouns, the PERSONAL, make a distinction of PERSON ; and one pronoun makes also, in the singular number, a distinction of GENDER.

## CLASSIFICATION.

5. The pronouns are not simply substitutes for names: they perform additional duties, according to the differences among which we classify them as follows:—

1. PERSONAL pronouns;
2. DEMONSTRATIVE pronouns;
3. INTERROGATIVE pronouns;
4. RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE pronouns.

And there are others besides, to which the name of pronoun less properly belongs, and which are called

5. INDEFINITE pronouns.

There are so few pronouns of each class, and their uses are so peculiar, that we mention and describe them all—as is not the case with any other part of speech.

**I.—Personal Pronouns.**

6. The PERSONAL pronouns are so called because they especially mark differences of PERSON (III. 5): that is, by their form they distinguish the person speaking, or the FIRST PERSON, from the person spoken to, or the SECOND PERSON.

7. The inflection of these pronouns is very irregular: thus, the plurals are quite different words from the singulars; the possessives usually have double forms, and are not made like those of nouns; and both possessive and objective are sometimes quite different words from the nominative.

As the person speaking and the person spoken to are usually present to each other, and as the plural forms of these pronouns may be substitutes for nouns of different genders, gender-distinctions are unnecessary in the case of these pronouns.

**I.—INFLECTIONS.**

8. The pronouns of the first and second persons, with all their forms, are these:

	FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PERSON.	
	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom . .	I	we	thou	ye, you
Poss. . .	[my, mine]	[our, ours]	[thy, thine]	[your, yours]
Obj . . .	me	us	thee	you

9. The possessive cases of these pronouns may be regarded as having an adjective value. This value and the peculiarities of these forms will be taken up under the pronominal adjectives (VII. 29).

10. Until the beginning of the thirteenth century, there survived in each of these pronouns an Aryan inflection, the dual number, that is, one expressing two: thus, *wit*, "we two"; and *git*, "you two."

The following table exhibits the development of the modern forms of the personal pronouns:—

Old Eng.	Early and Mid. Eng.	Modern.	Old Eng.	Early and Mid. Eng.	Modern.
SINGULAR.					
Nom. <i>Ic</i>	<i>Ic, Ich</i>	<b>I</b>	<i>thee</i>	<i>thee, thou</i>	<b>thou</b>
Gen. <i>min</i>	<i>min, mi</i>	<b>mine, my</b>	<i>thín</i>	<i>thín, thi</i>	<b>thine, thy</b>
Dat. <i>me</i>	<i>me</i>	<b>me</b>	<i>the</i>	<i>the</i>	<b>thee</b>
Acc. <i>mec, me</i>	<i>me</i>	<b>me</b>	<i>thec, the</i>	<i>the</i>	<b>thee</b>
DUAL.					
Nom. <i>wit</i>	<i>wit</i>		<i>git</i>	<i>git, get</i>	
Gen. <i>uncer</i>	<i>unker</i>		<i>incer</i>	<i>gunker</i>	
Dat. <i>unc</i>	<i>unc</i>		<i>inc</i>	<i>gunk</i>	
Acc. <i>uncit, unc</i>	<i>unc</i>		<i>incit, inc</i>	<i>gunk</i>	
PLURAL.					
Nom. <i>we</i>	<i>we</i>	<b>we</b>	<i>ge</i>	<i>ge, yhe, ye</i>	<b>ye, you</b>
Gen. <i>úser, ure</i>	<i>ure</i>	<b>our, ours</b>	<i>eówer</i>	<i>eower, gure, yure</i>	<b>your, yours</b>
Dat. <i>ús</i>	<i>ous, us</i>	<b>us</b>	<i>eów</i>	<i>eow, yow, ou</i>	<b>you</b>
Acc. <i>úsic, ús</i>	<i>ous, us</i>	<b>us</b>	<i>eówic, eow</i>	<i>eow, yow, ou</i>	<b>you</b>

11. The modern forms of these pronouns appeared during the Mid. E. period, *Ic* having been phonetically weakened to **I**, and the shorter dat. forms having superseded the acc. forms in -c immediately after the Conquest. **I** was for a long time written with a small letter; but, during the Mid. E. period, a capital was used, probably to distinguish it from the prefix of the passive participle, as *i-ronne*, and from the preposition *in*, which not infrequently appeared as *i*. In the middle of the sixteenth century, the distinction between the nom. and the obj. forms began to break down; and in the Elizabethan drama we frequently find them interchanged. In the case of **ye** and **you**, this confusion has resulted in the permanent establishment of the latter as the regular form for both nom. and obj., **ye** being still used, often indifferently in both cases, and with comparative infrequency in either. Until the sixteenth century, **ye** was the nom. and **you** the dat. and acc., as is the usage in the authorized version of the Bible. The confusion of these words was facilitated by the fact that neither of them possesses a case-inflection. Probably, too, **ye** was looked upon as a phonetically weakened and unemphatic form of **you** (colloquially **Thank you** is now often pronounced as **Thank ye**). In the other pronouns the original distinction has gradually reasserted itself, and in Modern English is strongly insisted upon. By some writers, however, the expression **It is me** is even now defended, on the ground that **me**, not being a real case-form of **I**, may justly be regarded as another form of the nominative.

12. In Old English, the genitives sing. of the first and the second personal pronoun were the same in form as the nom. sing. of the corresponding possessive adjectives; but, as the former were governed directly by verbs, adjectives, or prepositions, while the latter had full adjective inflections, the distinction between them was, in most cases, evident. When, however, the analytic tendency of the language developed itself, the genitives became more and more confined to the expression of the possessive relation, and the inflections of the possessive adjectives entirely disappeared, thus making the distinction between the two classes more nominal than real. The phonetically weakened forms *mi* and *thi* made their appearance at the end of the twelfth century, both strong and weak forms being at first used indifferently. Subsequently, in the Mid. E. period, differentiation (IV. 40. a.) took place, *min* and *thin* being used before words beginning with a vowel or silent *h*, and *mi* and *thi* before consonants. After the sixteenth century, this usage became a matter of individual choice. Subsequently, differentiation again took place, *my* and *thy* (as they had come to be spelt) being used almost exclusively before nouns, and *mine* and *thine* being used when not followed by nouns; but in poetry and the solemn style, and in a few such phrases as *mine* host, the longer forms were, and still are, often used before nouns. (The final *e* is but an orthographical expedient to lengthen the *i*; possibly it may be a relic of the plural inflection retained for this purpose.) This restriction of the use of *mine* and *thine* was, no doubt, aided by the use for the same purpose of the longer forms *oures*, *youres*, *hires* ("hers"), and *heres* ("theirs"). Originally these pronouns, when used in the predicate, had the forms *oure*, *youre*, *hire*, and *here*, that is, they had the same forms as the genitives of the personal pronouns. When, however, *s* became established as the common genitive suffix, being also the suffix of *his*, it was by a false analogy (IV. 46. b.), added to the other forms, giving us the double genitives *oures*, *youres*, *hires*, and *heres*. These forms first made their appearance in the Northern dialect, but in the fourteenth century they became firmly established in the literary language of the Midland dialect. In accordance with the usual law of development, they at first flourished side by side with the true genitives without *s*; but in the fifteenth century differentiation gradually produced the modern distinction of use. When, too, *their* displaced *here*, it also followed the analogy of the other possessive adjectives. Besides these, there were forms in *-en*—*ouren*, *youren*; *hiren*, *heren* (that is, *their'n*); but they are not now recognized in literary English, though they still exist as dialectical forms.

## II.—USES OF THE PRONOUN OF THE FIRST AND THE SECOND PERSON.

13. The plural forms of the first personal pronoun signify the speaker himself, together with the person or persons spoken to, or with others—any set or group or company of whom the speaker is one: thus,

We [human beings] have speech, and they [other animals]  
have not;

We [I and my companions] took a long walk together;

We [Canadians] live in the Western hemisphere;

We [you and I] see each other.



So the plural of the second person signifies either a number of persons addressed, or one or more such along with others who are regarded as being in one company with them : thus,

You [whom I speak to] must listen to me ;  
You [Germans] are a nation of scholars.

14. In certain styles, *we*, *our*, *ours*, *us*, are used by a single speaker of himself. So, especially by a sovereign : as

*We*, Victoria, Queen of England ;

also, by a writer, an editor or contributor to a periodical, who speaks as if he represented the whole body of people concerned in editing or contributing to the publication for which he writes.

15. The pronoun of the second person singular, *thou*, etc., is no longer used by us (as it was in former times) when ordinarily speaking to one another ; but it is left for certain higher and more solemn or more impassioned uses, especially in prayer and in poetry : thus,

O thou to whom all creatures bow,  
How mighty is thy name !

The plural form *ye* (formerly the only nominative case) we use in much the same way : thus,

O night and darkness, ye are wondrous strong !  
Nor you, ye proud, impute to these the fault.

And *you*, formerly objective only, has become the common pronoun of address, both nominative and objective, whether we speak to one person or to more than one. Being properly a plural pronoun, *you* takes, when subject, the verb in the plural, even though only one person is addressed : thus,

*you* are and *you* were ; never *you* is and *you* was.

*Thou* and *ye* (or *you*) are often, like nouns, used in the nominative of address, in calling to persons or things addressed, as in the examples given above.

16. From the end of the thirteenth to the seventeenth century, *you* was the pronoun of respect, the plural being probably regarded as implying that the person addressed was of more importance than a mere individual. Possibly, also, its use was regarded as a less direct mode of address than the singular, just as in Modern German the third person plural is used where we use the second. During this period, *thou* was used in familiar discourse. Hence it was used in the language of affectionate intercourse, of good-humored superiority towards servants, and of contempt and

anger towards strangers who are not the inferiors of the speaker. Naturally, a familiar mode of address adopted towards those with whom we are not on terms that justify it, is itself a proof of anger or contempt. Somewhat in the same way we now use the word fellow to express both contempt and fond familiarity. Further on (XIII.), it will be seen that in certain constructions *me, us, thee, and you* are real datives.

## II.—The Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.

17. The pronoun which is used as the substitute for the name of anything spoken of is often called the Personal Pronoun of the THIRD PERSON. It is, however, strictly speaking, demonstrative in function (*demonstrative* means “pointing out, showing, directing attention to”), and is best described as the DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON. When we speak of an object as *he*, we point it out just as when we speak of it as *this man*, only with less force and explicitness.

This pronoun distinguishes not only number and case, but, in the singular, gender also; that is to say, we use one pronoun when the object referred to is male, another when it is female, and another when it is of no sex, or when we make no account of its sex. The first form is called the MASCULINE, because it stands for a masculine gender-noun; the second, the FEMININE, because it stands for a feminine gender-noun; the third, NEUTER, because it stands for any noun that is “neither” masculine nor feminine.

### I.—INFLECTIONS.

18. The complete declension of this pronoun is as follows:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
Nom ..	<i>he</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>they</i>
Poss ..	[ <i>his</i> ]	[ <i>her, hers</i> ]	[ <i>its</i> ]	[ <i>their, theirs</i> ]
Obj ...	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>them</i>

The same remarks apply to these possessive cases as to those of *I* and *thou* (VI. 9).

19. The following table exhibits the development of the modern forms of this pronoun:—

	OLD ENG.			EARLY AND MID. ENG.			MOD. ENG.		
				SINGULAR.					
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	<i>he</i>	<i>heo</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>he, ha, a</i>	<i>heo, he, she</i>	<i>hit, it</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>it</i>
Gen.	<i>his</i>	<i>hire</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>hire</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>her, hers</i>	<i>its</i>
Dat.	<i>him</i>	<i>hire</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>him, hem</i>	<i>hire</i>	<i>him, hem</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it</i>
Acc.	<i>hine</i>	<i>hi, heo</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hine, ine</i>	<i>hi, hire</i>	<i>hit, it</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it</i>

## PLURAL FOR ALL GENDERS.

Nom.	<i>hi</i>	<i>hi, he, thai, thei</i>	<i>they</i>
Gen.	<i>hira</i>	<i>hi, his, hise</i>	<i>their, theirs</i>
Dat.	<i>him</i>	<i>hire, here, heore</i>	<i>them</i>
Acc.	<i>hi</i>	<i>hem, heom</i>	<i>them</i>

20. Of the O. E. pronoun, the fem. nom. sing., and all the forms of the plural, have been superseded by the corresponding forms of the demonstrative pronoun *se, soð, that*. This change, which began to take place during the Early E. period, but which was not completed till the fifteenth century, is due to the desire to distinguish between the forms of the pronoun, which, by phonetic weakening, had frequently become identical. Thus, for instance, in Early E. *he* represents the Modern *he, she, and they*; and *him* or *hem*, the Modern *him, it, and them*. The resort to the demonstrative was but natural (VI. 17), and began as early as the end of the twelfth century; but, as was the case with some of the other personal pronouns, complete differentiation did not take place at once, both sets of forms existing for centuries side by side. And, as was also usual in these movements, the Northern dialect led the way.

21. *Him*, now indifferently dir. or indir. obj., was, in O. E., only a dat. of *he* or *hit*, *-m* being a dat. suffix. It gradually superseded the masc. acc. *hine* during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the Modern *it* (derived from the acc. of the neuter pronoun) displacing it for the neuter. In our obj. *her*, the *-r* (that is, *-re*) was a fem. dat. suffix. So, too, *-m* in *them* was a dat. suffix. In the literature of the first part of the seventeenth century we find *'hem* (probably the original of the modern *'em*) as if for *them*, representing the O. E. *hem* or *heom*, which *them* displaced. It is probable also that the modern vulgarism in such expressions as *them books* is a relic of the old adjectival use of this pronoun.

22. The possessive adjectives *his* and *her* are true genitives, *-s* and *-r* being the suffixes of this case. For the forms *hers* and *theirs*, see VI. 12. The original genitive of *it* was *his*; but this was also the genitive of *he*. To get rid of the confusion which, on the loss of grammatical gender, affected these genitives, various expedients were at first resorted to. Sometimes, as in the authorized version of the Bible, of *it* and *thereof* were used; sometimes *the* was substituted, as in

That which retaineth the state and virtue;

but frequently it was regarded by the Elizabethan dramatists as indeclinable: thus,

It Knighthood shall fight all it friends.

The most usual method, however, was to change the construction of the sentence. This difficulty led to the formation of *its* on the analogy of the other pronominal forms. So far as is known, *its* appeared first in print in 1598. It is not found in the authorized version of the Bible; it is found but ten times in Shakespeare; in Jonson it is still more common; and by the middle of the seventeenth century, it had become thoroughly established; though the fact that Milton uses it only three times in his poetry, and rarely in his prose, shows that there was even then a prejudice against it.

## II.—DISTINCTIONS OF SEX.

23. By the use of the first two forms of this pronoun in the singular, we make a distinction of sex :

a. In those creatures which have evident sex, or in which the difference of sex is an important matter, and especially in human beings, men and women ; and

b. Sometimes in *personified* objects—that is, in those which, though we know they are not persons, we yet talk about as if they were so, as if they possessed sex. Thus, we speak of the sun as **he**, and of the moon or the earth or a ship as **she**.

24. The general principles that govern PERSONIFICATION are as follows :

(1) Things remarkable for, or associated with the notion of, strength, violence, superiority, majesty, or sublimity, are regarded as male ; for example,

**Death, War, the Sun, the Ocean, Winter, Anger, Heaven.**

(2) Things which possess gentleness, beauty and grace, or productiveness, or which are the objects of affection or care, are regarded as female ; for example,

**Night, Nature, the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Poetry, Art.**

(3) Classical mythology has also influenced our personifications : thus, as in the Classics, **Love** and **Time** are masculine ; and **Justice** and **Discord**, feminine. So, too, the planets **Jupiter** and **Saturn** are masculine, and **Venus** and **Vesta**, feminine.

This usage gives English a marked advantage over most other languages, in the poetical or the rhetorical style ; for when objects that are without life are regarded as male or female, the personification is far more effective than in those languages that possess true gender.

25. On the other hand, even objects that have sex, as the lower animals, are usually or often denoted by **it**, their sex not being important enough to be noticed. Or, in some cases, we use **he** and **she** of them—as **he** of the dog, and **she** of the cat—without any particular reference to their sex, but because their qualities in general appear to us to justify the use of these pronouns. And **it** is regularly used as corresponding pronoun to **child**, **baby**, and other such words, because they are not gender-nouns, but imply an overlooking of the sex of the beings signified by them.

## III.—USES OF IT.

26. It has a variety of special uses in which its usual pronominal force—its definiteness of reference—is weakened. The more important of these are as follows :

a. **It** very often stands as subject of a verb to *represent* a phrase or a clause which is the real subject, and which is then put after the verb: thus,

**It is not difficult to die ; It is doubtful whether he will come ;**

**It is to you that I speak ; It was then that he went ;**

that is,

**To die is not difficult ; Whether he will come is doubtful ;**

**That I speak (that is, my speaking) is to you ;**

**That he went (that is, His going) was then.**

So, too, in interrogative sentences ;

**When was it that he went ?**

that is,

**When was that he went (that is, his going) ?**

And we sometimes find it used in familiar style even in reference to a following noun phrase: thus,

**It is surprising the little money he has.**

But this construction is not reputable (I. 61), and should be avoided in literary English.

In all such sentences, **it** is called the GRAMMATICAL or REPRESENTATIVE SUBJECT ; and the word, or the phrase, or the clause is called the LOGICAL SUBJECT ; that is, the subject "according to the *logic* or real meaning of the sentence."

The effect of this idiom is to emphasize the subject by putting it at the end of the sentence out of its usual position. So, too, in the following idiom.

b. In the same way, it stands as a REPRESENTATIVE OBJECT of a verb: thus,

**I think it wrong to do so ;**

that is,

**I think to do so wrong.**

So, too, **I think it wrong that he has done so ; and**

**I think it wrong for him to do so.**

c. **It** stands as IMPERSONAL SUBJECT of a verb ; that is, it does not signify any real subject, but helps the verb to make an assertion without reference to any actor or *person* ; thus,

**It rains ; It was cold ; It grew dark fast ;**

**It will soon strike ten ; Is it far to London ?**

**It came to blows between them ;**

that is, "The act of raining is being performed," and so on.

Of the same nature is the use of it in the obsolete expressions,

It repents, shames, pities, pains me;

the intention here being to express feelings which we do not control.

Such impersonal constructions were very common in older English; but most of them have disappeared, owing to the continual tendency to definiteness shown by English and other progressive languages.

d. Sometimes, also, it stands as IMPERSONAL OBJECT of a verb, that is, it does not signify any real object: thus,

They footed it through the streets; He lorded it over them;

Come and trip it as we go; Foot it featly here and there.

27. If we attempted to represent, by a noun phrase, the it in any of the sentences in c. or d., we should give it a value which it does not possess; for example, if we substituted *The time of the year* for *It* in

It will soon be December.

So, too, retaining the form of the sentence, we cannot substitute an equivalent expression for it in any of the sentences in a. or b. In these special uses, it is, therefore, a weakened part of speech (II. 39).

### III.—Compound Pronouns of the First, Second, and Third Persons.

#### STRUCTURE AND USES.

28. The words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plur.) are added to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, forming a class of compound personal pronouns, which have two principal uses:

a. To mark *emphasis*, either alone or (more usually) along with the simple pronoun: thus,

I myself or me myself; none but herself.

Thus used, they are called EMPHATIC personal pronouns.

And these compounds have so assumed the character of emphatic personal pronouns that *myself* and *thyself* are occasionally found in the more elevated style, without any preceding *I* and *thou*, as subjects of the verb in the first and the second person: thus,

Myself am Naples; Thyself art God.

But this usage should not be imitated in ordinary literary English.

b. As the *reflexive* object of a verb; that is, an object denoting the same person or thing as the subject: thus,

I dress myself; They saw themselves deceived;

You will hurt yourself, or yourselves.

Thus used, they are called REFLEXIVE personal pronouns.

*Ourself* and *yourself* denote a single person (VI. 14 and 15); *ourselves* and *yourselves*, more than one.

So, too, the simple pronoun is sometimes used reflexively: thus,

Comfort ye, comfort ye, my people; He laid him down.



29. In Old English, *silf* was used generally as an adjective, joined to nouns and pronouns, and inflected regularly : thus, with pronouns, we find

*Ic silfa, min silfes, me silfum, hine silfne.*

Between the nom. of the personal pronoun and the word *silf*, the dative case of the pronoun was, for a time, inserted : thus,

*Ic me silf, thu the silf, he himsilf, we us silfe, ye eow silfe, hi him-silfe.*

Probably when *silf*, like other adjectives, lost its inflections, it came to be looked upon as a noun. In the course of time, however, while it was used with the objective of pronouns of the third person (thus, himself, herself, itself), in the case of the other personal pronouns it was treated as a noun modified by a possessive adjective (thus, *me self* and *the self* became *mi self* (that is, myself) and *thi self* (that is, thyself) ). These forms became established during the Mid. E. period, and have since remained unchanged. The modern plurals did not show themselves till towards the beginning of the Mod. E. period. Before then we find such plurals as *hemself* or *themself*. During the first half of the sixteenth century the origin of the compounds of *self* was forgotten, and they conformed to the general law for the formation of plurals in -lf. The modern confusion of case-forms has made it possible, if we disregard the historical development, to value the *her* in *herself* as a possessive adj., or, in objective constructions, as the subject of the appositive *self*. Similarly with the other ambiguous forms.

#### IV.—Other Demonstrative Pronouns.

##### INFLECTION AND USES.

30. The markedly demonstrative pronouns in English are, in the singular,

**this and that,**

with the corresponding plurals,

**these and those.**

All these words are used both as nominative and as objective cases, and they have no possessive. For their adjective value, see VII.

We sometimes find described as demonstratives *such*, *same*, *other*, etc.; but *this* and *that* are the words which have a markedly demonstrative pronominal value. All pronouns *relate*, and so are, in a sense, demonstrative.

31. As the following paradigms show, the O. E. forms of these pronouns were very fully inflected ; but the modern survivals are but few :

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	<i>the, se</i>	<i>theó, seó</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>thá</i>	<i>thes</i>	<i>theós</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>thás</i>
Gen.	<i>thæs</i>	<i>thære</i>	<i>thæs</i>	<i>thára, thára</i>	<i>thises</i>	<i>thisse</i>	<i>thises</i>	<i>thissa</i>
Dat.	<i>tham</i>	<i>thære</i>	<i>tham</i>	<i>thám, thæm</i>	<i>thisum</i>	<i>thisse</i>	<i>thisum</i>	<i>thisum</i>
Acc.	<i>thone</i>	<i>thá</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>thá</i>	<i>thisne</i>	<i>thás</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>thás</i>
Inst.			<i>thý, thé</i>				<i>theós, thýs</i>	

Consequently, this was originally neuter; thus, as late as 1387, we find masc. *thes*, fem. *theos*, neuter *this*, with plur. *thás*, *these* (originally *thise*) being a later formation derived directly from *this*. That is the neuter of *the*, the plural being represented by *tho* (O. E. *thá*). The modern *those* is by some regarded as having been formed from *tho*; by others, from *thás*, the plural of *this*, *thá* supplying the modern *they*. The final *e* in *those* and *these* has been added merely as an orthographical expedient.

32. *This* and *these* are used to mean something nearer; *that* and *those*, something farther off.

Consequently, this is sometimes equivalent to "the latter," and that to "the former": thus,

. . . reason raise o'er instinct as you can,  
In this 'tis God directs, in that 'tis man.

*This* may refer to something immediately preceding, or to something immediately following: *that* has the latter property, but not often the former. Examples of these uses are

*This* is right; *that* is wrong;  
He took no care of his life; he knew *this* was safe;  
He learned *this* at least, to bear up against misfortune;  
To be or not to be—that is the question.

*That* and *those* are also much used, instead of *it* and *they*, as ANTECEDENTS of a relative pronoun: thus, we may say

He whom you saw;  
but we must say

*That* (not *it*) which you saw.

In informal Modern English, however, we prefer, in such constructions, to use, even for he or she or its plural, the man or the woman, the person, etc. Probably he, she, it, and they are not now felt to have sufficient demonstrative force to serve as antecedents for restrictive relative clauses. So, too, in the following idiom.

*That* and *those* are used, too, in place of a noun which would have to be repeated along with a phrase describing it: thus,

My horse and *that* (not *it*) of my neighbor;  
Home-made articles and *those* (not *they*) from abroad.

This very convenient idiom we have borrowed from the French: it saves the disagreeable repetition of nouns or noun-phrases. Emphasis, of course, requires the repetition of the word or the phrase.

33. The adverb *so* is sometimes used with the value of a demonstrative pronoun in such sentences as

He said so; He told me so;  
in which *so* points to something said before.

Respecting *here* and *there*, used in composition with prepositions in the sense of "this" and "that" or "it"—as in

*herewith, therein, thereof, etc.,*

see below (IX.).

#### V.—Interrogative Pronouns.

34. The INTERROGATIVE pronouns are

**who, what, which, and whether.**

Their office is to ask a question, or to make an interrogative sentence; and their usual place is as near as possible to the beginning of the sentence: thus,

**Who comes here?      What does he want?**

**With whose permission did he leave home?**

**Which of us does he seek?**

#### I.—INFLECTIONS.

35. **Who** is used, without any change of form, both as singular and as plural: thus, either

**Who was here?    or    Who were here?**

It has, however, like the personal pronouns, three case-forms:

nominative, **who** [possessive, **whose**]; objective, **whom**.

The others have no forms of declension, and are used only as nominatives and objectives; **which** is either singular or plural; **what** and **whether** are only singular.

The same remarks apply to **whose** as to the possessives referred to in VI. 9 and 18.

**Whether** is now hardly used at all, being an old-fashioned word for "which one of two": thus,

**Whether is greater, the gift or the altar?**

36. In Old English the interrogative pronouns were *hwá*, "who"; *hwæt*, "what"; *hwilc*, "of what sort"; and *hwæther*, "which of two." During the twelfth century, words which had originally begun with *hw* changed their form to *wh* (IV. 43. a). *Hwá* was used both as a masc. and a fem., the special feminine which belonged to the primitive Teutonic having disappeared from Old English and the other sister languages, with the exception of the Gothic. *Hwæt* is, strictly speaking, the neuter of *hwá* (*t* being a neuter suffix).

37. The following table exhibits the development of the modern forms of the interrogative pronoun:—

	OLD ENGLISH.			EARLY AND MID. ENG.		MOD. ENG.	
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas. and Fem.	Neut.	M. and F.	N.
Nom.	<i>hwá</i>	<i>hwá</i>	<i>hwæt</i>	<i>huá, huo</i>	<i>huet, wat</i>	<b>who</b>	<b>what</b>
Gen.	<i>hwæs</i>	<i>hwæs</i>	<i>hwæs</i>	<i>huas, huos, wos</i>		<b>whose</b>	
Dat.	<i>hwam</i>	<i>hwæm</i>	<i>hwam</i>	<i>hwam, hwom, wom</i>		<b>whom</b>	<b>what</b>
Acc.	<i>hwone</i>	<i>hwone</i>	<i>hwæt</i>	<i>hwam, hwan, wan</i>	<i>huet, wat</i>	<b>whom</b>	<b>what</b>
Instr.	<i>hwý</i>	<i>hwý</i>	<i>hwý</i>				

The history of this pronoun is like that of the pronoun of the third person. About the beginning of the Mid. E. period *hwam* supplanted *whone* in the masc., as *him* did *hine*; and, like *him*, *whom* came to be used of persons only, and the acc. *what* was, for a time, alone used when objects without life were mentioned. So, too, as *his* has been restricted to the masculine (VI. 22), *whose* has been restricted to persons.

38. *Hwile* (*whilk, whulk, wuch, wich, and which*), like *such* (VI. 66. d), a compound of *lic* ("like"), and the instr. case of *hwá*, was originally inflected like an adjective. *Hwæther*, derived from *hwá* and the comparative suffix *-ther* (as in *neither, neuter*), was also declined adjectively. In O. E. its dual sense began to fail, and even in the authorized version of the Bible we find

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?

The use of *whether* as an interrogative died out in the seventeenth century, *which* taking its place, the distinction (as in the case of the dual number) having been felt to be unnecessary.

## II.—USES.

39. Between **who** and **what** we make a distinction different from that which we make anywhere else in the language: **who** (with **whose** and **whom**) is used of persons, human beings; **what** is used of everything else, whether living creatures or inanimate things.

40. **Which** differs from both **who** and **what** in being SELECTIVE: that is, it implies a certain known number or body of individuals, from among whom the right one is to be *selected*; whereas **who** and **what** are indefinite. Thus, if we say,

Who did it? or What did it?

we do not appear to know anything about the actor; but

Which did it?

implies that we know certain persons or things, of which one or another must have been the actor.

**Which** is used of both persons and things.

41. Who and its cases are pronouns only; what and which are also "interrogative adjectives" (VII. 35). For the treatment of **whose**, see VII. 30.

**Who** and **what** (with other interrogative words) are used also in an exclamatory sense (XVI.)

In older English **what** is sometimes used adverbially in the sense of **why**: thus,

What need we wine when we have Nilus to drink of?

Sometimes even now in the less formal style we find the same usage: thus.

What better will that make it?

**Where**, in composition with prepositions, is often used, especially in antiquated and solemn style, in the sense of **what**: thus, **wherein?** is equivalent to **In what?** (IX.)

#### VI.—Conjunctive or Relative Pronouns.

42. The demonstrative pronoun

that,

and the interrogative pronouns

who, what, and which,

are also used in a way that is called "relative"; and, when so used, they are known as **CONJUNCTIVE** or **RELATIVE** pronouns.

43. Like the other older Aryan languages, the Teutonic sub-family did not possess a relative in the strict sense of the term: complex sentences are not a growth of the early stages of the development of a language. In Old English the duty of the relative was performed by the following:

(1) The indeclinable *the*.

(2) The demonstrative *se*, *seo*, *that*.

(3) *The* joined to the demonstrative, giving, for example, in the nom.:  
*se the*, *seo the*, *that the*, or *thætte*.

(4) And occasionally *the* joined to the personal pronouns.

After the Conquest, *the* was the first to be given up, owing to its employment then as the definite article. All the forms of the demonstratives remained as relatives till the end of the twelfth century; but the only one that was much used was *that* ("that"), which displaced *the* as a general relative, becoming well established by the middle of the thirteenth century. As the language progressed, it began at an early period to resort to the interrogatives for additional relatives. **Which** first came into general use; sometimes alone; sometimes preceded by **the**; and sometimes followed by **that** or **as**, to give it a markedly relative value. From the fourteenth to the seventeenth century it was used for

both persons and things; but, when in the seventeenth century *who* began to be generally used, which was, as now, restricted to things, thus superseding *what*, the proper neuter relative. By differentiation, *what* in this way acquired its present value. As in the case of *which*, we find the archaic constructions, *that what, what that, what as; after who, too, that* was used for a time. By the Elizabethan period, these double forms had almost wholly disappeared, and all relatives were used singly without hesitation. From then till now, a struggle has been going on with varying success between *that* and *who* and *which*. Judging from analogy, the struggle will end in the complete differentiation of these forms (VI. 54). During all periods, *whose*, representing etymologically the genitive of both *who* and *what*, has been applied indifferently to animate and inanimate objects. *Whose* is sometimes used now as the possessive of *which*, being borrowed from the neuter *what*. The preference manifested by some for *of which* instead of *whose* is due to a desire to restrict *whose* to persons, but it is doubtful whether this differentiation will ultimately prevail (VI. 52). In the case of both interrogatives and relatives—as in the case of the personal pronouns—the nom. and obj. forms were confounded as soon as case-inflections had lost their force, and before differentiation had set in. In the phrase *than whom*, we have probably a survival of this confusion.

#### I.—GENERAL USES.

44. A relative refers or *relates* (hence its name) to a noun or another pronoun in the same sentence; and that other, as it generally stands first, is called the ANTECEDENT (“one going before,” “predecessor”) of the relative. But this “relation” is of a peculiar kind. The relative pronoun introduces a separate clause, and joins that clause adjectively to the antecedent in the way of a limitation or a description of it.

#### 45. In

The man who was sick is now well,  
the assertion is that a certain man is well, and he is distinguished from other men by the adjective clause *who was sick*, where the relative *who* is subject, relating to *man* as antecedent, and *was sick* is predicate. So, also, in

The gift which (or that) you ask shall be bestowed,  
He in whom you trust will not fail us,  
The boy whose knife was lost has bought another;

gift and he and boy are the antecedents, their application being limited or *restricted* by the clauses *which (or that) you ask*, and *in whom you trust*, and *whose knife was lost*. This use of the relative is called RESTRICTIVE.

#### 46. Again, in

My father, who was present, resented the insult;



the assertion is that my father resented the insult, and he is simply *described* by the adjective clause **who was present**, where, as before, **who** is the subject, relating to father, and **was present** is predicate. So, also, in

**The sun, which shines above, is golden ;**

**Man, whose soul is immortal, has a mortal body ;**

the adjective clauses do not distinguish **sun** and **man** from other objects of the same name ; they merely describe them. This use of the relative is called **DESCRIPTIVE**.

47. For **which** and **who** in descriptive clauses, and with a personal or a demonstrative pronoun, may often be substituted with the same logical force : thus, instead of

**I notified the constable, who arrested him at once,**

we may say

**I notified the constable, and he arrested him at once.**

Hence this use of the relative is sometimes called **CO-ORDINATING**.

48. But the conjunction to be substituted with the personal or the demonstrative pronoun in a descriptive clause is sometimes subordinate : thus, in

**He struck me who had done so much for him,**

the relative clause is logically equivalent to

**although I had done so much for him :**

and the restrictive relative may sometimes be represented in the same way : thus, for

**Soldiers who fight bravely die fearlessly,**

we may say with nearly the same force

**Soldiers die fearlessly if they fight bravely.**

But this kind of substitution is not so markedly allowable in restrictive as in descriptive clauses.

This distinction of relatives and relative clauses, though an important one, is one of logic, not of grammar.

49. Any word or phrase describing or limiting a noun may be thus turned into an adjective clause by the help of a relative pronoun, having the noun as its antecedent. Thus,

**My good father**

is logically the same as

**My father who is good ;**

and

**This modestly blushing girl.**

is logically the same as

**This girl that blushes modestly.**

It is because the relative thus acts like a conjunction, by joining a clause to the word which the clause describes or limits, that it is also called a "conjunctive" pronoun; and, as it is in this respect that **who**, **which**, **what**, and **that** differ from other pronouns (which also "relate" to nouns), the term "conjunctive" is more truly descriptive of them than "relative."

## II.—GOVERNMENT OF THE RELATIVE.

50. The relative pronoun, when its antecedent is a pronoun of the first or of the second person, shares, as it were, the person of its antecedent, and, if used as subject, takes the verb in the corresponding person: thus,

**I**, who am your friend, tell you so;  
To thee, who hast thy dwelling here on earth.

And in like manner after a vocative: thus,

Dark anthracite, that reddened on my hearth!

## III.—USES OF WHO AND WHICH.

51. **Who**, when relative, just as when interrogative, is used only of persons, and is both singular and plural. It has the possessive **whose**, and the objective **whom**. For example:

The man **who** was [or the men **who** were] recently with us,  
whose character we respected, **whom** we loved, and  
with **whom** we shared joys and sorrows, has [or have]  
been taken from us.

52. When not persons, but other creatures or things, are meant, the corresponding relative is **which** (not **what**, as in the interrogative use). Thus,

We have the letter **which** he wrote us;  
Branches **which** hang from the tree.

**Whose** is often used as the possessive of **which**, because more convenient and less formal than of **which**: thus,

A tale **whose** lightest word, etc.;  
Brown groves **whose** shadow, etc.;

but many disapprove of this, and think it proper to say only of **which**.

**Which** is also sometimes used descriptively (VI. 46) of the substantive notion contained in the preceding sentence or part of a sentence : thus, in

The man was said to be innocent, which he was not ;  
and

We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, which  
we cannot do without Divine aid ;  
which is equivalent to **and this**, the meaning of **this** being  
evident from the context.

**Which**, now used only of things, or of persons collectively (V. 12),  
formerly applied to individual persons also : thus,

Our Father which art in heaven, etc.

In older English, and rarely even now, the **which** is used instead of  
simple **which** : for example, in Byron,

'Twas a foolish quest,  
The which to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest.

#### IV.—USES OF **THAT**.

53. **That** is a very general relative ; it may be used instead  
of either **who** or **which**, referring both to persons and to things,  
and to one or to more than one. For example :

The head that wears a crown ; Wake ! all ye that sleep ;  
Repent the evil that you have done.

But **that** as relative does not follow a preposition. We say  
only the man of whom, the town from which, and so on ; not  
of that or from that.

Yet, if the relative object of a preposition stands apart from  
it, before the verb, either **that** or the other relatives may be  
used : thus, either

The book that I told you of,  
or  
The book which I told you of ;  
but only  
The book of which I told you.

54. Some grammarians hold that **who** and **which** are to be  
used descriptively, and **that** restrictively : thus,

This soldier, who was recently wounded ;  
Clouds, which are bodies of vapor ;  
but  
The soldiers that were wounded were left ;  
A cloud that lay near the horizon ;

and so on. But the best English usage by no means always supports such a distinction.

There are, however, certain cases in which **that** should be used, and not **who** or **which**:

a. When there are two or more antecedents expressing both persons and things. Thus, we use **that**, not **whom** or **which**, in

**I saw the boy and the dog that you pointed out.**

b. When the use of **who** or **which** would leave us in doubt as to whether the relative clause is restrictive or descriptive: thus, in

**I gave it to my brother who has left town,**

we should use **that** for **who**, if we wish to define **brother** by the relative clause.

55. On the other hand, **that** should not be used if the antecedent is already clearly defined; that is, it should not be used except in restrictive clauses. Hence it should not be used after proper names, and such other nouns or noun-phrases as have already a clearly defined reference: thus,

**He received it from my father, who went away.**

In other cases the selection of the relative seems to be at present a question of euphony or of taste rather than of grammar.

#### V.—SIMPLE INDEFINITE RELATIVES.

56. **What** differs from the other relatives in that it has not an antecedent expressed in the sentence, and, therefore, remains indefinite or undetermined in value, whereas the other relatives are determined by their antecedents. When used relatively, it implies both antecedent and relative; that is, it is nearly equivalent to **that which** (that demonstrative, and **which** relative), and, consequently, always introduces a substantive clause. It is not used of persons. Examples of its use are

**What is done cannot be undone; I saw what he was doing.**

**He understands of what (*i.e.*, that of which) you were speaking.**

Thus used, **what** is called a SIMPLE INDEFINITE relative.

In our earlier writers the use of **what** with a correlative was common: thus, in Shakespeare we find,

**That what we prize not to the worth.**

In poetry, too, and in older prose, its correlative is sometimes expressed if the principal clause follows: thus,

What thou would'st highly, that would'st thou holily;  
What he hath seen and heard, that he testifieth.

57. But **who** and **which** have an indefinite use (chiefly in objective clauses, or such as are the objects of verbs or prepositions), which often admits of being regarded as having a similar value; and, when used in this way, **which** regains the special *selective* meaning which belongs to it as an interrogative (VI. 40). For example:

We well know who did it, and whose fault it was,  
and whom people blame for it, and which of them  
most deserves blame.

And in older English we find that used in the same way: thus,

We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen.

The indefinite use of **who** in such constructions as

Who was the thane yet lives

and

Who steals my purse steals trash

is now obsolete. See also VI. 69.

#### DEPENDENT INTERROGATIVES.

58. But there is another indefinite use of **who**, **what**, and **which**, which cannot be regarded as the equivalent of a relative with an omitted antecedent. Thus, when we turn into dependent clauses the principal interrogative sentences,

Who said so? What am I to do? Which did the deed?

as in

He enquired who said so; I asked what I was to do;  
The question is, which did the deed;

the **who**, **what**, and **which**, have no antecedent expressed or understood to which they relate; they are simply interrogatives, used in dependent substantive clauses, and are called DEPENDENT INTERROGATIVES, and the clauses are known as INDIRECT or DEPENDENT QUESTIONS.

59. Sometimes, however, as in 57 above, the character of the dependent clause is ambiguous. Thus in

I know what I am to do,

the **what** may be a simple indefinite relative or a dependent interrogative; that is, the meaning may be "I know that which I am to do," or "I know the answer to the question, What am I to do?" This idiom shows how closely relatives and interrogatives are connected, and how the interrogatives became relatives.

60. Of English clauses containing such ambiguous forms, those only must of necessity be treated as indirect questions which are associated with some verb or noun of enquiry, or which are, as it were, the echo of another speaker's enquiry. Of course, the interrogative form is not

ambiguous when it does not admit of logical resolution into a relative and antecedent: hence the pronoun *whether*, as used in older English, is always interrogative (VI. 38).

#### VI.—COMPOUND INDEFINITE RELATIVES.

61. When the implied antecedent is of a more indefinite character, meaning “any one,” “any thing,” “any one of them,” we use the compounds *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *whosoever*, etc.; and, in old style, *whoso*; *-ever*, *-soever*, and *-so* having a generalizing effect: thus,

*Whoever* did it ought to be ashamed;  
*He* will give you *whichever* you want;  
*They* overthrow *whatever* opposes them.

These words are called COMPOUND INDEFINITE relatives.

The forms in *-so* and *-soever* are nearly obsolete. They occur frequently in older English and in the authorized version of the Bible: thus,

*Whoso* diggeth a pit shall fall therein;  
*Whosoever* sins ye remit, they are remitted.

The addition of *-so* to any other form than *who* is rare; but we find in Chaucer,

Let him say to me what so him list.

#### VII.—OMISSION OF THE RELATIVE.

62. The simple relative *that*, when object of a verb, or of a preposition following a verb, or when predicate nominative, is very often omitted, the dependent clause being thus left without any introducing word: thus,

The man we saw here is gone;  
 The horse he rode on was lame;  
 He is not the man he was;

instead of *The man that (or whom) we saw, The horse that (or which) he rode on, etc.*

Often also both preposition and relative are omitted: thus,

The time we met you  
 and

This is the way he did it,  
 are used instead of *The time at which* and *The way in which*.

In older English, and sometimes still in antiquated or solemn style and in poetry, *that* as a relative subject is also omitted: thus,

I have a grief admits no cure;  
 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view.

In colloquial English the same idiom obtains; but the modern tendency is to limit the omission to the less formal style, when the relative, if supplied, would be restrictive and objective, or a predicate nominative.



## IX.—OTHER WORDS USED AS RELATIVES.

63. The adverbs **when**, **where**, **whence**, **why**, **whither**, **how**, related by derivation to **who** and **what** (IX.), are used in a relative sense, almost as if they were cases of these words, or equivalent to **what** and **which** with prepositions; and they have the same double value, as definite and as indefinite relatives—except **how**, which is only indefinite: thus,

You see the place where (=in which) he stands;

You see where (=the place in which, or in what place)  
he stands.

And the same statement is true of the compounds of **where** with prepositions: thus, **wherewith**, **whereby**, **wherein**, and so on (IX.).

64. The conjunction **as** (XI.) is sometimes used after **same**, and especially after **such**, with the value of a relative pronoun: thus,

This is the same as he has;

I love such as love me;

**Same as** is a contraction for **same as that is which**; and **such as**, for **such persons as those are who**.

**As** is also used as a co-ordinating relative, shading off into an adverb (IX.): thus,

In this country the Prime Minister rules, as (that is, and this) is not  
the case in many other countries;

He sat down, as is customary in such cases.

65. By a yet more remarkable contraction, but (XI.) is occasionally used after a negative verb as a kind of negative relative, equivalent to **that not**: thus,

There is not a man here but knows it

means "There is not a man that does not know it," and is a contraction for **There is not a man but he knows it**. In older English we find such constructions as

I found no man but he was true to me.

## VII.—Indefinite Pronouns.

66. It is usual to put into a class together, under the name of indefinite pronouns, certain words which, either by their derivation or by the way in which they are used, have a likeness to pronouns. Most of these are used as adjectives also; and they, in fact, occupy a kind of intermediate position between the real pronouns on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other. When used pronominally, they do not indicate a particular individual: thus, **any** means "one of

a number," but which one is not indicated; the reference of the pronoun is left indefinite or undetermined.

#### I.—SUB-CLASSES AND USES.

To this class belong

a. The distributives **each**, **either**, and **neither**. These pronouns refer to objects, not as a whole, but as taken separately.

**Each** distributes two or more than two, but though applicable to two, it does not imply that there are two only.

**Each** is from the O. E. *ælc*, having lost the *l*, as **which** and **such** have, and containing like them the word *lic* ("like"). Originally, *ælc* was equivalent to our **every**, **everybody** being represented by *ælcmán*, and **everything**, by *ælcthing*.

**Either** and **neither** distribute two, and imply that there are two only.

Sometimes, however, **either** is equivalent to "each" or "both": thus, in Milton we find,

On either side is level fen.

But the usage is not to be imitated, as we already have a word to express this meaning.

**Either** was so used in Old English: thus,

*On ægthre healfe*, "on either half," that is, "on both sides."

**Neither** is etymologically *ne*, "not," and *hwæther*, "whether." Older pronunciations were *nowther*, *nawther*, and *nauther*. The word should, therefore, be **nather**, but the influence of **either** (IV. 46) has produced its present form.

b. The words of number and quantity, **some**, **any**, **many**, **few**, **all**, **both**, **one** and **none**, **aught** and **naught**.

**Some** originally meant "certain"—a meaning which still remains in the compounds **somebody**, **something**, **sometimes**.

**Any**, in Old English *ænig*, is the indefinite form of the numeral *án*, "one."

**One** (formerly pronounced as **on** in **only**) is derived from the O. E. numeral *án*, "one," of which it is a weakened value.

**Aught** is the O. E. *awight* (that is, *án*, "one," and *wiht*, "a wight," or "person"). Derivative **n-aught**.

c. The compounds of **some**, **any**, **every**, and **no**, with **one**, **thing**, and **body**.

**Every** is distributive, referring to more than two and including all, and being thus equivalent to "each and all."

**Every** grew out of the habit of strengthening *ælc* by prefixing *æfre*, "ever," the older form being *æuer-ælc* (variously spelt), which in Chaucer's time had become *everich*.

**No** is a weakened form of **none**.

In Mid. E. *none* was generally used before vowels, and *no* before consonants; but in very early authors *none* is found before consonants also: thus, *none tongue*. Even in modern poetry we find the archaic use: thus, in Longfellow,

Achieving what none other can.

d. The comparatives **such** and **other**.

**Such** and **other** are evidently pronominal in function, being unintelligible, without reference to some object mentioned or understood.

**Such**, in O. E. *swilc* (that is, *swa*, "so," and *lic*, "like") is equivalent to "so like," a composite, the reason for which is seen in the tendency to form the double compound **such-like**. Being etymologically equivalent to "so-like," **such** is really the correlative of **which** (VI. 38), as is seen in Bacon: thus,

**Such** which must go before.

And we find also,

It is very natural for **such** who, etc.

But the best modern usage has decided that its proper correlative is **as** (which is etymologically equivalent to "all-so").

The suffix *-ther*, of **other**, is comparative, and the *o* (i.e., *an*) is from a demonstrative root *an*, "that"; so that **other** is equivalent to "more than that," or "beyond that." It was in Old English an ordinal numeral also, but it has been displaced by the Fr. *second* (VII. 45).

67. Of the words in the preceding paragraph, only **one** and **other** have plural forms, **ones** and **others**; and they only rarely or never (except **one** and **other**, and the compounds of **one**, **thing**, and **body**) form a possessive case.

In older English we find a possessive for **either**: thus, in Shakespeare,

**They** are both in **either's** power.

## II.—RECIPROCAL PRONOUN-PHRASES.

68. **Each other** and **one another** are pronoun-phrases, having a reciprocal or "mutual" sense, and are now used as if simple pronouns. By origin,

**Fond** of **one another**,

for example, is really

**One fond** of **another**;

and

**They** love **each other**

is

**They** love, **each** (of them *the*) **other**,

**each** being in apposition with **they**.

But, in such constructions as

**They spoke to each other (or one another),**

**each** and **other**, and **one** and **another**, are so closely associated that they must be regarded simply as anomalous pronoun-phrases. In older English we find **each to other** and **one to another**, and so on.

In Modern English, **each other** is, by many, used only with reference to two; and **one another** with reference to more than two. This usage, however, though reputable and recent, is by no means national. Probably the differentiation will eventually prevail.

### III.—OTHER WORDS USED AS INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

69. Besides the words enumerated above as indefinite pronouns, a good many others are often used in the same way with a weakened value: thus, **a man**, **who** (in older English), **you**, **people**, **they**, **body**, **fellow**, etc., as in the following :—

From whence can a m a n satisfy these with bread here in the wilderness?

She whirled them on to me as w h o should say (that is, as if one);

Y o u cannot always succeed (that is, “no one can”);

T h e y (*i.e.*, people) say Wolseley will be recalled;

P e o p l e are always cowards when in the way;

W i l l it eat a b o d y (or a fellow)?

I tell you w h a t.

And, according to many authorities, enough, much, more, most, several, etc., and, in older English, else, sundry, certain, are to be included owing to their relational character; and, as these words are unintelligible until we know to what they refer, there is force in the contention so far as concerns some of their uses. (See also VI. 2.) It is, however, usual to confine the list to those which are now markedly pronominal in character, and whose special function is the pronominal one.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

## §§ 1-3.

1. Discuss the merits of the following :

a. Pronouns are words which designate persons or things by their relation to other persons and things.

b. The term pronoun is based upon the wider signification of the term noun as including both the noun substantive and the noun adjective. (See p. 36.)

c. Avoidance of repetition is only one of the purposes served even by demonstrative pronouns, and is never a function of the Personal Pronouns.

d. Some pronouns play the part of adjectives ; but they always imply the presence of nouns.

e. In the universality of their application as dependent upon relative situations merely, and in the consequent capacity of each of them to designate any object which has its own specific name besides, and so, in a manner, to stand for and represent that other name, lies the essential character of the Pronoun.

f. Pronouns are symbols, names, or highly generalized marks, applied to objects to signify, not any inherent attribute, but merely their relations to the act of speaking.

## § 5.

3. Discuss the merits of the following classifications :

a. Four classes : Personal, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Relative (Indefinites taken up under the Adjective).

b. Two classes : Substantive and Adjective. These are further classified thus : Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative and Relative, Indefinite, Distributive, Possessive, and Reflective.

## THE PARSING OF PRONOUNS.

In the example,

These are the men, some of whom visited us yesterday ;  
we first analyze, as on pp. 50 and 125, thus :

A *complex assertive* sentence containing two clauses :

1. These are the men, *Principal, assertive.*  
whom *Conjunctive (or Connective) of 1 and 2.*
2. some of whom visited us yesterday. *Subordinate to 1, adjective to men.*

The analysis of each clause may then be continued, as on p. 49.

In parsing we take up the words in the same order as hitherto :

These is a demonstr. pron., in the pl. (sing. this, pl. these), and nom., being the subj. of the sentence, or subj. nom. of are.

The rest of the words of this clause are then to be taken up.

Some is an indef. pron. (of number or quantity) ; uninflected, but it has here the value of a plural, and is of the nom., because, etc.

Whom is a rel. pron., having for its antecedent men, and joining to men the clause some of whom, etc., to show *what* men are meant ; third pers. and pl., because men is so ; and in the obj. case, because, etc., being joined by of to some, to show *what* the persons signified by some are part of.

Of should be next described ; then visited and then us and yesterday.

If we have a rel. pron. belonging to the pred., we must rearrange the clause so as to put the rel. in the usual place of such a member of the sentence : thus, in

**the man whom we saw ; the book which he was talking of ;**

the relative clauses become

**we saw whom ; he was talking of which.**

An indef. rel. may be represented by its logical equivalents (VI. 56), and parsed accordingly ; but the dependent clause which contains it is best analyzed (and parsed accordingly) as in XIV. 16, e., no ellipsis being recognized, and simply the use of the pronoun being described.

#### EXERCISES.

For additional practice in parsing or describing the pronouns, the other exercises in the book may be resorted to. The examples in the smaller print below are to illustrate exceptional (chiefly Shakespearian) uses. These should be explained, and modernized when necessary.

1. Jura answers, through her misty shroud, back to the joyous Alps, who call to her aloud. 2. It was told the king of Egypt that the people fled. 3. To him it mattered little which of the two parties triumphed. 4. These are propositions of whose truth no one knows. 5. Whether of them twain did the will of his father? 6. I that speak to thee am he. 7. His praise is lost who waits till all commend. 8. The that that that man used should have been which. 9. What does it matter what he did, or whose it is? 10. Certain were there who swore to the truth of this. 11. He is the same as he has ever been. 12. Few shall part where many meet. 13. By others' faults wise men correct their own. 14. Some are happy while others are miserable. 15. They took hold of one another's hands. 16. The many rend the skies with loud applause. 17. None but the brave deserves the fair. 18. Neither has anything he calls his own. 19. In this 'tis God directs, in that 'tis man. 20. There is no vice so simple but assumes some mark of virtue in its outward parts. 21. 'Tis Providence alone secures in every change both mine and yours. 22. Whatever you do, don't do that : what is done cannot be undone. 23. I still had hopes, my latest hours to crown, amidst these humble bowers to lay me down. 24. Where yet my boys are and that fatal she, their mother. 25. O, then, how blind to all that truth requires, who think it freedom when a part aspires ! 26. It is time to go. 27. It had rained all month. 28. Folly that both makes friends and keeps them so. 29. We speak that we do know. 30. He knew not which was which. 31. It is all one to me. 32. Whoe'er I woo, myself would be his wife.

1. Here's none but thee and I. 2. Run thee to the parlor. 3. To beg of thee it is my more dishonor than thou of them. 4. Desire his jewels, and this other's house. 5. The lady protests too much, methinks. 6. He presently, as greatness knows itself, steps me a little higher than his vow. 7. But, if you mouth it as many of your players do, etc. 8. Lord Angelo dukes it well. 9. Deign it, Goddess, from my hand to receive whatever this land from her fertile womb doth send. 10. The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long, that it had it head bit off by it young. 11. His form had not yet lost all of his original brightness. 12. Me rather had my heart might feel your love. 13. Woe, woe are we, sir. 14. Come, wilt thou see me ride? and when I am o' horseback, I will swear I love thee infinitely—But hark you Kate : I must not have you henceforth question me. 15. I do beseech ye, if you bear me hard. 16. I'the name of truth, are ye fantastical? My noble partner you greet with present grace. 17. For the nobility, though they continued loyal to him, yet did they not co-operate with him. 18. Who when he lived, his breath and beauty set gloss on the rose, and smell on the violet. 19. Whom we raise we will make fast. 20. What need we any spur but our own cause? 21. He doth nothing but frown, as who should say, "If you will not have me choose." 22. The present business which now's upon us ; without the which this story were most impertinent.



## CHAPTER VII.

## ADJECTIVES.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. An adjective is, as we have seen (II. 22), a word used to modify a noun, that is, either merely to limit its application, or to express a quality of the thing it represents: for example,

**the man, eight men, golden sun, good man.**

2. The adjective added to a noun does not directly assert anything to belong to what the noun expresses. That can be done by means of a verb only: thus,

**The sun is golden;    The man is good.**

In **golden sun, good man**, the adjective merely mentions the quality, either implying that the quality might be asserted, or limiting the application of the noun to those objects of which the quality might be asserted.

3. But the adjective modifies its noun in various ways.

In **the man** and **eight men**, **the** and **eight** merely limit or *restrict* the application of their nouns, **the** by pointing out a particular man, and **eight** by indicating the number.

When, again, the adjective expresses quality, it is sometimes a more important and sometimes a less important addition to the noun and member of the sentence. If, for example, we say

**The brave soldier was wounded with a sharp sword,  
and his red blood flowed from the deep cut,**

the adjectives **brave, sharp, red, and deep** are simply pictorial or *descriptive*, and the sentence would mean essentially the same, if they were omitted. The adjective thus used increases the meaning of the noun as presented to us; but it does not limit its application: this remains as before. It simply gives prominence to some quality actually possessed by the object the noun represents, which quality we may not have thought or known of. The value of the notion thus presented to us by the noun and adjective together is different from that presented

by the noun before the addition, though the extent of the application of the noun remains unchanged.

But, if we say

Brave soldiers do not run away,  
Sharp swords make deep cuts,  
Only vertebrates have red blood;

the same adjectives are of much more consequence; since it is implied in each case that, if the quality described were wanting, something quite different would be true. The adjective here, as in the case of the *and eight* above, limits or *restricts* the application of the noun.

This difference in the value of adjectives corresponds to the difference in the value of relative clauses (VI. 45—49); and, like them, the adjective is called *DESCRIPTIVE* on the one hand, and *RESTRICTIVE* on the other.

The predicate adjective is descriptive: it increases the meaning of the noun without limiting its application: thus, in

Wise statesmen are desirable,

*desirable* does not limit the application of *wise statesmen*: it merely adds to what we know of wise statesmen, the fact that they are desirable.

## INFLECTIONS.

4. Adjectives have not in English (as they have in many other languages) any inflection or variation of form, to express differences of number, or case, or gender. The only exceptions are *this* and *that*, which with a plural noun are changed to *these* and *those*. This is a relic of the inflection of adjectives in Old English, which was of the same sort as the inflection of nouns.

5. During the Old English period, the adjective was distinguished by the following characteristics: two declensions, grammatical gender, two numbers, and five cases; but even then it was poorer in inflections than the Gothic, the earliest of the Teutonic languages. When the noun was made definite by having joined to it the definite article, or a demonstrative or a possessive adjective, the declension of the adjective added to it was (as in Modern German) different from that of the adjective added under any other circumstances. In the first case, the adjective itself is regarded as indefinite; and, in the second, as definite: hence the terms *DEFINITE* and *INDEFINITE* applied to the declensions. *Gód*, "good," is declined as follows, the table showing also the processes of assimilation and phonetic decay:

## OLD ENGLISH.

## EARLY AND MID. ENG.

## MOD. ENG.

**I.—Definite Declension.**

## SINGULAR.

	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas., Fem., Neut.	
Nom.	<i>góda</i>	<i>góde</i>	<i>góde</i>	<i>gode</i>	good
Gen..	<i>gódan</i>	<i>gódan</i>	<i>gódan</i>	<i>goden</i>	(for all relations)
Dat..	<i>gódan</i>	<i>gódan</i>	<i>gódan</i>	<i>goden</i>	
Acc..	<i>gódan</i>	<i>gódan</i>	<i>góde</i>	<i>goden, or e</i>	

## PLURAL.

	Mas., Fem., Neut.	Mas., Fem., Neut.
Nom.....	<i>gódan</i>	<i>goden, or -e</i>
Gen.....	<i>gódena</i>	<i>godene</i> “
Dat.....	<i>gódum</i>	<i>goden</i> “
Acc.....	<i>gódan</i>	<i>goden</i> “

**II.—Indefinite Declension.**

## SINGULAR.

	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	<i>gód</i>	<i>gód</i>	<i>gód</i>	<i>god</i>	<i>god</i>	<i>god</i>
Gen..	<i>gódes</i>	<i>gódre</i>	<i>gódes</i>	<i>godes</i>	<i>godre</i>	<i>godes</i>
Dat..	<i>gódum</i>	<i>gódre</i>	<i>gódum</i>	<i>gode</i>	<i>godre</i>	<i>gode</i>
Acc..	<i>gódne</i>	<i>góde</i>	<i>gód</i>	<i>godne</i>	<i>gode</i>	<i>god</i>

## PLURAL.

	Mas., Fem., Neut.	Mas., Fem., Neut.
Nom.....	<i>góde</i>	<i>gode</i>
Gen.....	<i>gódra</i>	<i>godre</i>
Dat.....	<i>gódum</i>	<i>gode</i>
Acc.....	<i>góde</i>	<i>gode</i>

Thus, in Old English, “a good man” would be *gód mann*; “of a good man,” *gódes mannes*; but, when the noun is made definite by having added to it the demonstrative, for instance, the definite declension is used: thus, “that good man” would be *se góda mann*, and “of that good man,” *thes gódan mannes*.

Even during the Old English period, a good deal of phonetic decay had taken place, and in its literature survivals of earlier inflections are constantly met with. The Old English fulness of inflection was retained down to about the twelfth century; but, after that, the distinction between the declensions was one of the first things to give way. Remains of the definite declension are found even in Chaucer; but, before the beginning of the Modern English period, all trace of adjective inflections had disappeared, except the plural forms these and those.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

6. Like nouns (V. 25), adjectives are divided into SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

## I.—Simple.

7. SIMPLE adjectives are such as we cannot take apart into simpler elements in our own language : as

good, red, round, kind, sincere, supreme.

8. DERIVATIVE adjectives are such as come by adding suffixes or prefixes from other words that are in use in our language. Some of the commonest and most important classes of derivative adjectives are as follows :

## 1.—BY SUFFIX.

a. Adjectives derived from nouns by a great variety of suffixes, and with a great variety of meaning : they signify resembling, pertaining to, possessing, characterized by, made of, free from, etc., etc., that which is signified by the noun : thus,

with -ly,	fatherly, homely, daily ;
“ -ful,	truthful, grateful, useful ;
“ -ous,	odorous, mischievous, murderous ;
“ -al,	brutal, fatal, notional ;
“ -ic,	despotic, telegraphic, cubic ;
“ -able,	marriageable, peaceable, fashionable ;
“ -ed,	winged, aged, moneyed ;
“ -y,	fiery, juicy, sugary.

b. Adjectives derived from other adjectives, by suffixes denoting especially a difference of degree (including suffixes of comparison [VII. 22]) : thus,

with -er,	smaller, longer, prettier ;
“ -est,	tallest, strongest, ugliest ;
“ -ish,	roundish, youngish, bluish ;
“ -ly,	weakly, cleanly, deadly ;
“ -some,	wholesome, gladsome, wearisome.

c. Adjectives derived from verbs. These are especially the “participles” (VIII.) : the imperfect participle in -ing, as

loving, giving, putting ;

the perfect participle in -ed, or -en, or without any added suffix, as

loved, varied, petted ; given, bitten, slain ; sung, wound, fought ;

and the verbal adjectives in **-able** and **-ive**, as

**lovable, disputable; active, oppressive.**

## 2 —BY PREFIX.

9. The most common classes of derivatives by prefix are  
 with **-un**, **untrue, untruthful, unwholesome, unloving,**  
**unloved, unsung, unlovable;**  
 “ **-in**, **inactive, incapable, impure, insufficient.**

Others less numerous and regular are

**international, extraordinary, antenuptial, postdiluvial,**  
**preternatural, superabundant, coeternal, malcontent,**  
**subacid, aweary, begirt, misspelt.**

## III.—Compound.

10. Compound adjectives are made by putting together two (rarely more) words that are used independently in our language.

The most important classes of compound adjectives are as follows :

a. A combination of two adjectives, the former having usually the value of an adverb modifying the other : as

**new-born** (*i.e.*, “newly born”), **full-fed, hard-gotten,**  
**fresh-looking.**

b. A combination of an adjective with a preceding noun that limits it in a variety of ways : thus,

**life-like, milk-white, knee-deep, home-sick, home-made,**  
**soul-stirring, purse-proud, water-tight, moth-eaten,**  
**sea-sick.**

c. A combination of a noun with a preceding adjective (or noun used adjectively) that modifies it, and with **-ed** added as an adjective suffix : as

**four-footed, seven-hilled, red-headed, old-fashioned,**  
**dark-eyed, low-toned, lion-hearted, hare-lipped, eagle-**  
**eyed.**

This class, called **COMPOUND-DERIVATIVES**, is an immense one, and is continually growing by new formations (**IV. 31**).

d. A combination of an adjective with a preceding adverb : as  
**everlasting, never-dying, ever-bold, underbred, fore-ordained.**

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

11. From the whole body of adjectives, which, like nouns and verbs, are innumerable, we have to separate and treat by themselves certain special and limited classes: namely, PRONOMINAL adjectives, or adjectives related to pronouns; NUMERALS, or adjectives of number; and the ARTICLES. Apart from these special classes, the general mass of adjectives may be called adjectives of QUALITY.

## I.—Adjectives of Quality; Comparison.

## I.—REGULAR COMPARISON.

(1) *Degrees of Comparison and their uses.*

12. Although adjectives have no inflections in Modern English, many adjectives have, as we have seen (III. 21), a variation of form. Thus, to say

a long string,

simply implies the quality of length as belonging to the string spoken of;

a longer string

implies that, of two strings compared, the one referred to exceeds the other in length;

the longest string

implies that, among any number (more than two) compared, the one so called exceeds all the rest in length.

The word **longer** is said to be of the COMPARATIVE degree; and, by means of this degree, we show that one thing exceeds another thing in the degree in which it possesses a certain quality.

The word **longest** is said to be of the SUPERLATIVE degree (*superlative* means “surpassing” or “exceeding”); and, by means of this degree, we show that, among any number of things (more than two) compared, one exceeds any of the rest in the degree in which it possesses a certain quality.

The word **long** is said to be of the POSITIVE degree (*positive* means “stating simply, without modification”), which is, thus, the adjective in its simplest form.

And the variation of the adjective in this way is called its COMPARISON (because of the comparing of one thing with others which it implies). Comparison is, therefore, the change of form



which many adjectives undergo to mark the degree of the quality as possessed by the object they describe, when compared with other objects possessing the same quality.

13. The comparative degree strictly implies a comparison between two objects, the superlative among more than two. Yet we sometimes say, for example, **longer than all the others**, though **longer than either** or **than any of the others** would be better. And, on the other hand, both in ordinary talk and in literature, it is very common to speak of one of two things as being **the longest**, although to say **the longer** is more accurate and more approved. This irregularity is due to the common tendency to drop a distinction when, as here, the meaning would be evident without it.

14. We use the comparative when we compare one thing with one other, or with a group of several others; or when we compare one group with another group or with a single other thing; or again, when we compare a thing with itself under other circumstances: for example,

Bound thus, the book looks larger.

But, in all these cases, there are only two objects of thought.

When, again, we say

This grammar is larger than all the other books on the shelf,

we express the same relation as to size between the grammar and the other books as if we said,

This grammar is the largest book on the shelf;

but, in the first sentence, we consider the grammar and the other books on the shelf as separate objects of thought, whereas in the second the grammar is considered as one of the group of books compared with one another. This difference in use between the comparative and the superlative is sometimes indicated by describing the comparative as **EXCLUSIVE**, and the superlative as **INCLUSIVE**. Such constructions as the following are, therefore, incorrect:—

Gladstone is a greater statesman than any Englishman;

Gladstone is the greatest of all other English statesmen;

The fairest of her daughters, Eve.

### (2) *Classes of Adjectives subject to comparison.*

15. What adjectives shall be compared depends partly on their meaning, since some qualities or conditions hardly admit of a difference of degree: as

each, two, first, round, brass, yearly, Gregorian,  
Canadian, Almighty.

The adjectives which, owing to their meaning, do not admit of comparison, belong to the following classes :

- a. The pronominal adjectives.
- b. The definite numeral adjectives.
- c. Adjectives formed from the names of figures, materials, times, persons, places.
- d. Adjectives expressing an extreme limit.

When, however, adjectives included in c. and d. are used in a weakened sense, we may express various degrees of the quality : thus,

The statement is more or less certain ;

The chiefest among ten thousand.

16. But the comparison depends much more upon the form than upon the meaning.

Most adjectives of one syllable may be compared : thus,

short,	shorter,	shortest ;	fit,	fitter,	fittest ;
dry,	drier,	driest ;	coy,	coyer,	coyest ;

but comparatively few of two syllables. Examples are

sincere,	sincerer,	sincerest ;	able,	abler,	ablest ;
guilty,	guiltier,	guiltiest ;	common,	commoner,	commonest ;
tender,	tenderer,	tenderest ;	polite,	politer,	politest ;

and of three syllables almost none.

17. The adjectives of two syllables that are usually compared are those ending in -y, -er, or -ble ; those accented on the last syllable ; and a few others, when the derivative thus formed has not a disagreeable sound. But among the older writers especially, there is, in this matter, a good deal of irregularity.

### *(3) Substitutes for Comparison.*

18. Adjectives that are not compared have their variations of degree expressed by adverbs. And, especially, the addition of **more** and **most** makes a kind of compound forms, or adjective-phrases, which have the same meaning as the comparative and the superlative degrees, and are substitutes therefor : thus,

famous,	more famous,	most famous ;
distant,	more distant,	most distant.

Even adjectives which admit of comparison often form phrases of this kind instead : thus,

fit,	more fit,	most fit ;
able,	more able,	most able ;
common,	more common,	most common.

And where an object is said to have more of one quality than of another, the phrase with **more** is alone used : thus,

**The news was more true than pleasant (not truer than pleasant).**

Generally speaking, adverbs are used in expressing the variations of degree of adjectives of other than purely English origin. But euphony should be our guide in selecting the mode of expression.

19. By means of other modifying words, other degrees of a quality may be indicated. Thus, with **less** and **least**, we have comparative and superlative adjective-phrases of **INFERIORITY**, those with **more** and **most** being known as comparative and superlative adjective-phrases of **SUPERIORITY** ; with **as** and **not so** (which good writers and speakers prefer to **not as**) we have comparative adjective-phrases of **EQUALITY** and **INEQUALITY** : thus,

**He is as tall as I am ; He is not so tall as I am.**

*(4) Absolute Superlative Forms and Phrases.*

20. In **my dearest father** and **a man of highest renown**, there is no comparison implied, although the forms are those of superlatives. The superlatives here, and similar adjective-phrases containing **most**, **very**, **extremely**, **supremely**, and so on, are called **ABSOLUTE**, ordinary superlatives being, of course, **RELATIVE**. Such forms also as **bluish**, **greenish**, express an absolute diminution of quality.

In older English we find also absolute comparatives : thus, in Spenser,  
**Help thy weaker novice,**  
 meaning, "thy too weak novice." Modern English, however, does not allow such forms.

*(5) Construction of the Comparative.*

21. The comparative is usually construed with **than**, which is, therefore, called its sign. There are, however, in English a few words which, though comparatives in meaning, are not comparatives in construction. These are

a. Words of Latin origin which are comparatives in that language, but which, not having the English comparative suffix, are not comparatives in construction : thus,

**senior, junior, inferior, superior, ulterior.**

b. A few words of purely English origin which usage has thus restricted : as,

**elder, former, hinder, upper, under, inner.**

(6) *Origin of the Comparative and the Superlative.*

22. As the examples already given show, the comparative and superlative degrees are derived from the simple adjective, or the positive degree, by adding respectively *-er* and *-est*, the suffix usually making an additional syllable in pronunciation (not, however, in *abler*, *ablest*, and the like).

23. The addition of the suffixes of comparison (as in the case of the plural suffixes of nouns [V. 34]) causes certain modifications in spelling. These are as follows:

a. Adjectives ending in *-e* drop this vowel: thus,  
able, *abler*, *ablest*; handsome, *handsomer*, *handsomest*.

b. Adjectives ending in *-y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*; but, if a vowel precedes, no change takes place: thus,  
happy, *happier*, *happiest*; gay, *gayer*, *gayest*.

c. A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled to maintain the quantity; final *-l* preceded by an unaccented vowel is also sometimes doubled: thus,

red, *redder*, *reddest*; cruel, *crueller*, *cruellest*.

24. The suffixes almost universally employed in the Teutonic languages to form the comparative were *-is* and *ós*; to these was added *-ta* to form the superlative. Except in Gothic, the *s* of the comparative was changed to *r* (IV. 43. b), remaining, however, unchanged in the superlative, and surviving till now in the irregular comparatives *less* and *worse*. The forms employed in comparison were, therefore, *-ir* and *-or*, and *ista* and *osta*. In Old English, moreover, the *i* and the *o* of the comparative suffix were dropped; but, in many words, the vowel assimilation (IV. 43. (c) 3) that had been produced by the suffix, lasted till the fourteenth century, and even later. Thus, *lang*, "long," had for comp. *lengra* (for *lengira*), the *i* of the *ira* causing an assimilation of the *a*. Of this, we have a survival in *old*, *elder*, *eldest*.

Again, as adjectives in this degree were invariably inflected according to the definite declension (VII. 10), the termination of the nom. was always *-ra* or *-re*. The superlative, on the other hand, dropped the final *a*, and weakened the *i* to *e*. Thus, in Old English, adjectives were compared as follows:

Pos. <i>blind</i> ("blind"),	Comp. <i>blind-r-a</i> ,	Superl. <i>blind-ost</i> ;
" <i>strang</i> ("strong"),	" <i>streng-r-a</i> ,	" <i>streng-est</i> ;
" <i>eald</i> ("old"),	" <i>yld-r-a</i> ,	" <i>yld-est</i> .

During the Early English period, connecting vowels *e* and *o* (and sometimes in the superlative *y* and *u*) again appeared (IV. 24), but with confusion in their use. An adjective was then compared as follows:

Pos. <i>blind</i> ,	Comp. <i>blind-ere</i> ,	Superl. <i>blind-est</i> ( <i>e</i> );
	" <i>blind-ore</i> ,	" <i>blind-ost</i> ( <i>e</i> ).

The forms in *e* steadily gained ground, becoming thoroughly established in the fourteenth century; and, by the beginning of the Mod. E. period, the final *e*, which had become mute, was dropped in spelling.

Not till 1220 do we find an example of the use of an adverb instead of a suffix of comparison; but, in the fourteenth century, phrase-comparison made rapid progress. A desire for euphony has led to its present general use; though, even in Shakespeare, Bacon, Milton, Sidney and Hooker, we find such forms as

repiningest, virtuousest, famousest, exquisitest, excellentest.

Generally speaking, such forms are now used for rhetorical effect only.

## II.—IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

25. A few adjectives are irregularly compared, the comparatives and superlatives, in some cases, not being derived from the positive. As is usual, two forms of the same degree, when established in general use, have different meanings. The following are the cases of irregular comparison in English:

a. good, better, best.

bad or ill, worse (rarely *worser*), worst.

little, less (sometimes *lesser*), least: we owe the forms *worser* and *lesser* to the fact that these were felt not to be comparatives after the usual type (IV. 46. b).

many or much, more, most: the original meaning of *more* and *most*, which was "great" and "greatest," is still retained in the phrase *for the most part*.

old, older, oldest, and elder, eldest: the latter are now used to denote the precedence that comes from being older.

late, later, latest, and latter, last: the latter are now used to indicate position in a series.

near (itself properly a comparative of *nigh*) forms the superlative *next* as well as *nearest*, the former having a weaker meaning than the latter.

Next (or *nehst*) is, thus, a contraction for the M. E. *nehest*, Mod. E. *nighest*, just as the obsolete *hext* or *hest* is of the M. E. *hehest*, Mod. E. *highest*.

b. A certain number of comparatives and superlatives have an adverb, not an adjective, for their primitive; and the superlatives have usually the irregular ending *most*—which, moreover, is often added to the comparative degree. Examples are,

from in, inner, inmost or innermost;

" out, outer, outmost or outermost;

" up, upper, upmost (rare) or uppermost.

**Utter** and **utmost** or **uttermost** are originally the same as **outer**, etc.

**Fore** (sometimes itself used as an adjective) makes **former** and **foremost** or **first** (its true superlative). From **fore** we have also **further** and **furthest**, or **furthermost**, **furthest**, forms that are due to the mistaken notion that **further** is the comparative of **forth** (IV. 46. c.).

**Far** makes **farther** and **farthest** on a mistaken analogy with **further** and **furthest**, assisted by the greater ease of pronunciation produced by the insertion of **-th** (IV. 45. e. (2)). The older forms had not the **-th**.

By many, the use of **further**, **furthermost**, and **furthest** is restricted to expressions that involve the conception of motion, **farther** and **farthest** being reserved for others.

c. A kind of superlative is also sometimes formed with **most** from words which do not distinguish any positive and comparative. Examples are

**midmost**, **undermost**, **hithermost**, **nethermost**, **northernmost**, **southmost**.

26. The irregular comparison seen in **good**, **bad**, **little** and **many**, is common to all the Teutonic languages, and goes back to the earliest times, being due to the fact that the comparatives and superlatives are derived from stems different from those of the positive. **Gooder** and **goodest**, and **badder** and **baddest**, are sometimes, though not often, met with in older English; but **littler** and **littlest** occasionally make their appearance even in modern literature. The feeling that **littler** and **littlest** more markedly convey the idea of diminution (**-le** being valued as a dim. suffix, though etymologically *lytel* is only the lengthened adj. form for the noun *lyt*, "a little"), has no doubt led to this exceptional usage. Like **nearer** and **lesser**, **better** and **more** are double comparatives, the older comparatives being *bet* and *mo*.

27. In a few words, traces still survive of the ancient Indo-European superlative suffix *ma*, as, for instance, in **fore-m-ost** and **ut-m-ost**. In Old English, *for-ma* meant "foremost"; and *ute-ma*, "utmost"; but even then the general adoption of **-est** as the superlative suffix weakened the value of the *ma*, and led to the formation of the strengthened double superlatives *fyrmost* and *utmost* (IV. 47), the *o* of the modern forms being due to confusion with the adverb **most** (IV. 46. c.) Of the superlatives given above, which consist of this **-most** added to a comparative, the oldest forms did not possess an *r*. Thus,

**hindermost**, **innermost**, **uttermost**, **nethermost**,

were originally

*hindemest*, *innemest*, *utemest*, *nithemest*.

The *r*, therefore, seems to be partly phonetic, and partly due to the influence of comparative forms.



28. In Shakespeare and other Elizabethan writers, we often find such expressions as

more larger, more elder, more nearer, most unkindest, most boldest.

This double system was introduced in the fourteenth century ; and until the seventeenth century (when it began to die out) it was very much in vogue, being regarded as an elegance of speech. Ben Jonson speaks of it as "a certain kind of English atticism, imitating the manner of the most ancientest and finest Grecians." The latter statement, however, is incorrect, as the other Teutonic languages manifest the same inclination. The desire to intensify by repetition is natural to all men. The naturalized Latin superlatives *extreme* and *supreme*, when used in a weakened sense, form the new superlatives *extremest* and *supremest*.

## II.—Pronominal Adjectives.

29. Pronominal adjectives are in part derivatives from the words already described as pronouns ; but in greater part they are identical with them, the same word being used either adjectively, accompanying a noun which it modifies, or substantively, as a pronoun standing for a noun. Pronominal adjectives are partly adjectival, and partly pronominal, in function (II. 37), and are divided into classes corresponding to those of the pronouns.

Not all the classes of these pronouns possess the same amount of pronominal value. In the possessive adjectives, this value is clearly marked : thus, in

James lost his hat,

his evidently refers to the same object as *James*. But in others the pronominal value shows itself in the fact that, although a noun is added, as in

this man, what man? every citizen of the town.

a knowledge of the attendant or other circumstances is necessary to enable us to determine the exact reference of the phrase ; for we regard as having a pronominal value all words which, instead of naming or describing an object, enable us to distinguish it by some relations.

### I.—POSSESSIVE.

30. The first class is that of POSSESSIVE adjectives. Most of these correspond to the personal pronouns, and have already been given and described as possessive cases. They are

1st p.	my, mine ;	our, ours ;
2d p.	thy, thine ;	your, yours ;
3d p.	<div> <div> <div>m.</div> <div>his ;</div> </div> <div> <div>f.</div> <div>her, hers ;</div> </div> <div> <div>n.</div> <div>its ;</div> </div> </div>	<div> <div> <div> <div> </div> <div>their, theirs.</div> </div> </div> </div>

To these is to be added *whose*, the possessive of *who*, both as interrogative and as relative.

The distinction of person, gender, and number in these words is, of course, a distinction belonging to the persons or things possessing, and not to the persons or things possessed, or those modified by the possessives.

31. The forms **my** and **thy** are shortened forms of **mine** and **thine**, the older forms of which were *mín* and *thín*, the *e* final of the modern forms being used merely to indicate the length of the preceding vowel. **Mine** and **thine**, like **his**, **her**, **its**, **our**, **your**, and **their**, were at one time genitive cases in Old English: **hers**, **ours**, **yours**, and **theirs** have really double inflections, -s having been added to the simple possessive.

The existence of two forms of the same word led gradually to a well-established difference of use in Modern English: thus, the forms—**mine**, **thine**, **hers**, **ours**, **yours**, **theirs**—are used absolutely; that is, when no modified noun follows these forms; **my** and **thy** are used when a noun follows; and **his** and **its** have both uses: thus,

**My book and yours;                      Your book and mine;**  
**The book is hers, not theirs; Good morning, brother mine!**

But in older English, and in old-style English, **mine** and **thine** are frequently found instead of **my** and **thy**, especially before a vowel: thus,

**brother mine, mine own eyes, thine every wish;**  
**Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice.**

32. Both adjectives and possessive cases may be used before their nouns to modify them: thus,

**The good man, and The boy's book.**

and predicatively: thus,

**The man is good, and The book is the boy's.**

These uses **my** and **mine**, **thy** and **thine**, and so on, divide between them, being singly incomplete, but complementary to each other when taken in their two forms. They are, therefore, adjectives with weakened functions (II. 36).

33. In Johnson's style and Johnsonian style, the function of Johnson's and of Johnsonian is the same, both being attributive; but, in accordance with our definitions (III. 1), Johnson's is an inflectional form, and Johnsonian a derivative one. Whether, therefore, in Modern English we shall regard **my** and **mine**, and so on, as pronominal adjectives, or as possessive cases, depends on what we include under the term

possessive inflection. If we regard *my* and *mine* as possessive cases, to be consistent we must regard as cases such forms as

*the* (adv.), *thence*, *whilst*, *once*, *then*, *than*, *there*, *why*, *when*, and so on, as these also are modified case-forms (IX.). It is, however, usual to regard the *'s* as the modern possessive case-suffix; and we should, therefore, be justified in regarding *my* and *mine* as derivative adjectives—a view which is strengthened by the fact that, in Old English, some of these forms had full adjectival inflections (VI. 12). But, as inflection is a kind of derivation, the question is really one of naming—the function is attributive, whichever view we take.

## II.—DEMONSTRATIVE.

34. The DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOMINAL adjectives are

*this*, *these*; *that*, *those*; *yon*, *yonder*.

The first two pairs are the same as the demonstrative pronouns, and are used with the same differences of meaning when adjectives as when pronouns.

*Yon* or *yonder* points to a remoter object, generally to one in sight. Neither form is in common use.

*Yon* is the O. E. *geon* ("there" and "through," adv. and prep.), and the M. E. *yon* or *yeon* and *yond* or *yeond* (used adjectively as now), the -d evidently being epithetic (IV. 45. e. (3)). In Shakespeare we find *yond*: thus,

*Yond star that's westward from the pole.*

*Yonder*, a comparative form, is a M. E. adverb, not found in Old English. It is still used adverbially also.

To these is sometimes added *so*, when used adjectively in the predicate, in such sentences as

*He is so; He became so; He grew so;*

But, although *so* refers to some notion expressed before, this word is not so markedly and purely demonstrative as those already given.

By some grammarians *the* is also placed here on account of its pronominal origin (VII. 48).

## III.—INTERROGATIVE.

35. The interrogative pronouns *who* and *whether* are not used also as adjectives. But *which* and *what* are so used, and are, therefore, INTERROGATIVE adjectives. Both of them apply to either persons or things, and they differ only in that *which* is selective. Thus, in general,

**What book have you?**

but, if two or more are had distinctly in mind, and the question is as to the individual one among them,

**Which book have you?**

## IV.—RELATIVES.

36. **Which** and **what** are also the only **RELATIVE** adjectives. Both, like the indefinite relatives, usually imply the antecedent along with the relative; and **which** differs from **what** in being selective: thus,

I know **what** book (that is, the book in general **which**) you mean;

I know **which** book (that is, the book in particular, of a certain known set, **which**) you mean.

But **which** appears sometimes as a definite relative: thus,

He was gone a year, during **which** time he travelled  
all over Europe.

The compound forms **whichever** and **whatever**, and so on, have the value of adjectives as well as of pronouns, and a like meaning.

## V.—INDEFINITE.

37. Most of the so-called indefinite pronouns, with one or two other kindred words, are used also as **INDEFINITE PRONOMINAL** adjectives. Of these there are three sub-classes:

a. **DISTRIBUTIVE** adjectives: **each** and **every**, **either** and **neither**. Of these, **every** is always adjective only.

b. **COMPARATIVES**: **such** and **other**: **such** implying resemblance, and **other**, difference. **Other** is followed by **than**, like comparative adjectives in general: thus,

Other worlds than ours.

c. **QUANTITATIVES**: **some**, **any**, **many**, **few**, **all**, **both**, and **no**.

38. The phrases **a great many** and **a few** are used apparently as simple adjectives to modify the following noun: thus,

A great many men are there; A few men are there.

But the quantitative is here really a noun, being modified by the adjective **great**; and **of** is omitted before the following noun: thus,

A great many of men; A few of men;

whereas in

Very many men, and Very few men,

**many** and **few** are real adjectives, being modified by the adverb **very**.

In Old English we find an adjective *manig* (also *mænig* or *monig*) and a noun *menigeo* (also *mænigeo*, *mænigu*, or *mænigo*), "a multitude." From these respectively may have come our adjective and noun, although the influence of phonetic decay and of analogy has obliterated the distinction in form. At any rate, **many**, as used above, seems to be a real noun, for it may be modified by an adjective; whereas, **few** seems

to be an adjective used as a noun, for it may be modified by an adverb only. In Shakespeare, and, indeed, in other writers of his period, we find undoubted examples of this substantive use of *many*: thus,

A many of our bodies; the rank-scented many; in many's looks;  
O thou fond many; The many rend the skies.

The omission of the *of* in the examples first above given is probably due to their frequent use: we shorten, as much as is consistent with clearness, what we have to say often and clearly. Probably, too, the omission of the *of* leads us to construe these phrases according to the sense, that is, as adjectival to the following noun.

But, although we now say

A great many (and a few) wise acts;

and

A great many (and a few) men's acts,

that is, "the acts of a great many men," or "a great many of men's acts"; we must say,

A great many (and a few) of my (and our, the, man's, and John's) acts, just as we must say,

Two (and so on) of my (and our, the, man's, and John's) acts.

Probably the insertion of the *of* in this case is due to the greater definiteness and less common form of the constructions.

39. The following constructions are to be explained in the same manner as the various constructions with a great many and a few:

a dozen men (but a score of men, score being less usual than dozen),  
a hundred men, half the land (but a quarter, etc., of the land),  
all the men, all the man's farm, more food (but more of the food),  
a little food (but a little of the food), both the men (also both of the men, but two of the men).

40. By a very peculiar construction, *many* (which is otherwise used with plural nouns only) seems, when joined with *a* or *an*, to modify a singular noun: thus,

full many a gem, many an opportunity.

In Old English, the construction was *manig mann*, that is, "many man," an idiom which is found in some cognate languages. In Early English we find the first traces of the modern idiom: thus,

*moni anes cunes* ("of many a race").

From the fact that in this expression the *moni* is not inflected, whereas the *anes* is declined like an adjective, there is strong reason for believing that, whatever may have been the origin of the idiom, the *moni* was adverbial in function. This view is strengthened by the fact that in Modern German we have the same idiom: thus,

*mancher* (adj.) *mann* ("many man," i.e., "many a man"),

but

*manch* (adv.) *ein mann* ("many a man").

Hence, in full many a gem, and such expressions, the history of the phrase and the analogy of German, as well as the modern function of the word, lead us to regard many as an adverb modifying a, many a being equivalent to many times a.

41. What seems to be the same idiom is found in older English with some other adjectives: thus,

*at ich a mel* ("at each a meal").

In such constructions as

what a piece,                      such a Roman,                      too heinous a respect,  
so excellent a fruit,    how large a letter,    as queer an exhibition;

there is simply an inversion of the usual order (XVIII.). In older English writers the modern arrangement is not observed: thus,

*A such will brought this lond to gronde;*

*He delivered men of an so foul thyng;*

*A so grete beast;*

and some of the preceding examples we can express in the natural order also.

### III.—NUMERALS.

42. The QUANTITATIVES are often called INDEFINITE NUMERALS, from their use in describing number. But there is also a special class of definite words used in counting and so on, which are so peculiar that they are sometimes reckoned even as a separate part of speech. These are called NUMERALS.

#### I.—CARDINALS.

The chief are those which are used in counting, or in answering the question "How many?" They are called (in contrast with the ordinals, explained below) the CARDINAL numerals, or the CARDINALS (*cardinal* means, as used here, "principal, most important").

43. The cardinals are

one, two, three, four, and so on;  
eleven, twelve, thirteen, and so on;  
ten, twenty, thirty, forty, and so on;  
hundred, thousand, million, and so on.

44. The cardinals are used not only adjectively, modifying a noun, but also substantively, standing for a noun, or connected with the following noun by the preposition *of*. Thus, either

three men,

or

three of the men.



Used as nouns, they may all form plurals: thus,

**They walked by twos and threes ;  
We are all at sixes and sevens ;  
They sat down by fifties and hundreds.**

The higher numbers, **hundred, thousand, million**, and so on, usually keep the singular form in simple enumeration, even after **two, three**, etc. ; and always, if they form part of a compound number, made up of different denominations. Thus, we say

**two hundred, and two hundreds ;  
five thousand, “ five thousands ;  
ten million, “ ten millions ;**

but

**ten thousand six hundred ;  
six million three hundred and twenty thousand four  
hundred and thirty-six ;**

the singular forms, which alone are adjectival, indicating the sum merely ; and the plural, which are nouns only, having also reference to the original parts that constitute the sum.

For **two**, an old form **twain** is still sometimes used ; and **dozen** is a common substitute for **twelve**, and **score** for **twenty**.

From the cardinals come the following classes of derivative words :

## II.—ORDINALS.

**45.** First, the **ORDINALS**, by which we show the *order* or place of anything in a series, reckoning from the first.

The ordinals are mostly formed from the cardinals by the suffix **th**, which, in the case of compound numbers, is added to the last only (compare **V. 62**) : thus,

**fourth, fifth, sixteenth, seventieth, eighty-ninth,  
eighteen hundred and seventy-seventh, and so on.**

But the ordinals of **one, two, three** are

**first, second, third ;**

and these are used also in the compound numbers : as

**twenty-first, ninety-second, hundred and third.**

All our ordinals are the O. E. ones, except first and second. **First** rose into its place from the dialects, but second was borrowed from the French. The O. E. word was *other*, which had also its present pronominal values (**VI. 66. d**). The desire to differentiate evidently brought about the substitution.

## III.—FRACTIONALS.

46. The same words, except **first** and **second**, are used substantively to denote one of a corresponding number of equal parts into which anything is supposed to be divided: thus,

**a third (or third part) of an apple ;  
six hundredths of the amount.**

In this sense, they are called FRACTIONALS.

The fractional corresponding to **two** is **half** instead of **second** ; and instead of **fourth** we more often say **quarter**.

## IV.—MULTIPLICATIVES.

47. In order to show how many times anything is taken, or by what it is *multiplied*, the cardinal numeral is formed into a compound adjective with the English word **fold**, which remains singular: thus,

**twofold, tenfold, hundred-fold.**

These words are called MULTIPLICATIVES.

Of the same value are

**simple, double, triple, quadruple,**

and a few others in the Romance **-ple** (or **-ble**), much less often used.

The numeral adverbs (**IX.**),

**once, twice, thrice,**

have a similar multiplicative sense. We use also multiplicative adverbial phrases, as

**three times, four times, and so on.**

## IV.—Articles.

48. The articles, **an** or **a** and **the**, are two words of somewhat peculiar character and office. (*Article* means “a little joint,” these words having been at one time fancifully regarded as “joints” of the sentence.) **The** is a weakened derivative both in form and in meaning from the demonstrative adjective **that**, as **an** or **a** is from the numeral **one**.

In Old English, *the* was rarely used as the nom. sing. masc. of the article (VI. 31), *se* being used instead. In the twelfth century, *se* died out, and *the* took its place, *the* and *that* being for centuries thereafter used indifferently with nouns of any gender. But, in the course of time, the use of **that** as a demonstrative, as a relative, and as a conjunction, led to the differentiation of **the**, which alone thereafter had the force of the article.

49. The **the** which we often use before a comparative (adjective or adverb) in such phrases as

The more, the merrier ;  
The more he looked at her, the less he liked her ;  
Are they the worse to me because you hate them ?

is an adverb, being etymologically *thy'* or *thi'*, the Instrumental case of *thæt* (VI. 31), which case was in Old English also used with comparatives.

The numeral *án*, "one," had sometimes, even in Old English, the force of an indefinite article. After the Norman Conquest, the form *an* became confined to this function, and in Early English arose the modern distinction between **an** and **a**.

#### I.—USES OF AN AND A.

50. **An** is used before a vowel-sound ; **a** before a consonant. But, if a word beginning with a pronounced **h** has the accent on its second syllable, many (or most) persons use **an**, as the **h** in such words is not fully sounded : thus,

**an** hotel ;    **an** historical novel ;    **an** hypothesis.

Before the sound of **y** or **w**, however written, only **a** is proper in modern use : thus,

such **a** one ;    **a** union ;    **a** European ;  
just as we should say **a** wonder, **a** youth.

51. In phrases like

A shilling a pound,      Three shillings a yard,

the **an** or **a** is not precisely the article, but a weakened form of **one** in another sense, that of "each *one*, each, every." In others, however, as in

I fast twice **a** week, O. E. *lc fæste twwa on wucan* ;

the **a** or **an** seems to have been originally the preposition **on**, followed by a dative without the article.

And in

He is gone **a** hunting,      They set it **a** going,

and the like (which are often, and better, written **a**-hunting, **a**-going), the **a** has nothing to do with either the article or the numeral, but is also a phonetically reduced **on**.

52. **An** or **a** indicates that we are speaking of some one or of any one of the objects of which the noun is the common name: thus,

A man called on me to-day ;  
An officer should be sent to him ;  
A horse, a horse, my kingdom for a horse !  
A man should bear himself bravely in adversity.

From this use it is called the INDEFINITE article.

53. These examples illustrate the chief uses of the indefinite article, the exceptional ones being due to the weakening of its original force. In the first, it is nearly equivalent to "a certain," thus indicating an individual of the class, but not specifying which one, although it may be possible to do so; in the second, it is more indefinite, and is nearly equivalent to "some or other"; in the third, the indefiniteness is still greater, and a horse is nearly equivalent to "any whatever"; and in the fourth, the effect of its use is to generalize the statement, a man being nearly equivalent to "any man you may mention," and, therefore, to "all men."

## II.—USES OF THE.

54. The usually marks off the noun to which it is joined as the name of something which both speaker and hearer can in their minds separate from others of the same class: thus,

The boy we want is not here;    Thou art the man;  
The duke is dead.

From this use it is called the DEFINITE article.

Occasionally, it puts the individual for the class: thus,

The lion is a carnivorous animal.

55. The has a weaker demonstrative force than that. The latter may be used without any additional limitation of the noun: thus, we say that man as well as that man at the door and that man who came last.

With the, therefore, some defining circumstance is generally expressed or understood. It has two main uses:

### a. In

the orator Cicero, the green blinds, the King of Greece,  
the man who was there;

the other defining attributes are expressed, and to them the directs attention: in

This is the man,    The Duke is dead,

it implies that the man has been already referred to in some way, or is well known; and in

the moon, the sun, the universe, the hill, the heavens,

it directs attention to objects with the notion of which our experience has made us familiar. In all these cases, the points out a particular object or class of objects.

↳ In such expressions as

the maple, the lion, the Americans, the English, the pious,  
the nobility, the ridiculous,

the has become still more weakened (II. 36 and 39), for there is no additional limitation expressed or understood; and each phrase is, therefore, used in a general sense.

## SPECIAL USES OF THE ADJECTIVE.

56. The substantive use of adjectives has been already explained (V. 71).

But an adjective, without being used as a noun, very often stands alone, as modifying a noun that is *understood*, or to be supplied in mind from the connection. For example :

He owns a white horse, and I a black [horse] ;  
 His horse is white, but mine [my horse] is black ;  
 He is a just [man], but not a generous man ;  
 She was by far the loveliest [girl] of the three girls.

And a comparative or a superlative is sometimes used alone where, with a positive, we should have to use *one*, or a noun, or the like : thus,

She was the loveliest among the three ;  
 Of the pair, she was the lovelier ;

while we should say

She was the lovely one of the family.

It may fairly be made a question here whether we shall describe the adjective as modifying a noun not expressed, or as used substantively ; probably the latter is to be preferred. It is, however, a use that differs from the ordinary substantive use of the adjective ; for the word is not subject to inflections, and what the complete substantive idea is we can tell only from the context. Such words are, therefore, somewhat relational.

57. In such expressions as

To be wise is to be truly happy,

the adjectives are used as complements to the subjectless infinitives, and, therefore, have no words to modify. The phrases are general in their nature, and are equivalent to nouns ; thus,

Wisdom is true happiness.

So, too, in

John's (or His) being young was against him,

the adjective young is used in the same way. (See adjective verbs, VIII. 4.)

58. Many adjectives are used without change as adverbs : thus,

much, more, little, all, ill, fast, far ;

and

The listener scarce might know,

in which scarce is by poetic license for scarcely.

## ADJECTIVE EQUIVALENTS.

As in the case of nouns, words not properly adjectives, also phrases and clauses, are sometimes used in sentences with the value of adjectives.

59. a. Nouns, especially those denoting material, are very often used as adjectives, without any change of form : thus,

a gold watch,    a rail fence,    a bible text,  
noonday dreams,    country customs.

Such phrases are of the same nature as the first stage in the formation of compounds and derivatives (IV. 28). This mode of adjection (that is, of expressing the adjective notion) is peculiarly English : it is a direct result of the loss of inflections.

The possessive case of nouns is, as has been shown (VII. 33), adjectival in function, and an adjective may sometimes be substituted therefor : thus,

a father's care, and paternal care, or fatherly care.

b. Adverbs may also be used occasionally as adjectives : thus,

the then ruler,    my sometime friend.

This usage is still more common with words which may be used indifferently as adverbs or as prepositions : thus,

the up train,    the after part,    the above remarks.

An adverb used in the predicate to modify the subject is also adjectival in function : thus,

The man was there;    The stars are out;  
His step was light, for his heart was so.

c. A phrase : thus, in

The war between Prussia and Austria,

the preposition with its objects is adjectival, and in this case may be represented by an adjective : thus,

The Austro-Prussian war.

So, too, in

Having gone, he bettered his fortune,

the combination **having gone**, which is called a PARTICIPIAL phrase (VIII.), is adjectival, like the simple participle ; and such phrases may be modified in various ways : thus,

Having gone away, or Having struck the man.

d. A clause, which, like an adjective, may be restrictive or descriptive (VII. 3) : thus, for

(1) a wise father, and (2) my wise father,



we may say

(1) a father that is wise, and (2) my father who is wise, wise and the subordinate clause being restrictive in (1), and descriptive in (2). See also VI. 48 and XIV. 14.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

### §§ 1-3.

1. Discuss the merits of the following definitions :

An adjective is a word expressing the quality of a noun ; (2) joined to a noun to limit its application ; (3) united to a class noun to narrow its range and increase its meaning ; or (4) that may limit the application of a noun to that which has the quality, quantity, or the relation, which the adjective denotes.

2. Discuss :

a. In highly inflected languages, where adjectives had their own inflections, it was natural to elevate them to the rank of a Part of Speech. In Modern English it is inconvenient to do so ; because, first, we have defined a noun as the name of a thing, and "white" is as much a name as "whiteness" ; and, secondly, "white" is clearly used as a noun after the verb "is" and many others ; as "Snow is white" ; that is "Snow is a white thing."

b. Both verbs and adjectives express notions of the actions and attributes of things ; but they do so in different ways, and hence they are ranked as different parts of speech.

3. By what tests would you distinguish between an adjective, and a noun used as an adjective ; and a noun, and an adjective used as a noun ?

4. Why are king's, walking, and orator in the following not valued in grammar as adjectives :

the king's crown ; walking-stick ; Cicero, the orator.

### §§ 7-10.

5. Analyze each of the following, giving the force of each of the parts, and classifying the form :

ticklish, low-bred, predestined, wooden, evil-spoken, evil-doing, strong-voiced, leisured, tempest-tost, learned, purblind, steelly, flaxen-haired, darksome, bed-ridden, imperfect, handsome, subacute, buxom, woe-begone, thankless, colorable.

6. Explaining the processes, convert the following adjectives into nouns :

sweet, humble, wise, broad, pure, perfect ;

and the following nouns into adjectives :

snow, brass, brother, sense, fool, wood.

### §§ 11-55.

7. Discuss the merits of the following classifications :

a. Qualitative Adjectives ; Quantitative Adjectives ; Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation.

b. Pronominal Adjectives, including Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Possessives ; Adjectives of Quantity, including those of Mass or Bulk, and those of Number, which latter are Definite or Indefinite ; Adjectives of Quality ; the Articles.

8. Classify the following adjectives according to meaning :  
both, large, stricken, English, industrious, thirty, thirty-second, three-fold, any, same, whatever, either, sun-burnt, pleasing, red, almighty, year, mine, which, few, more, fiftieth, one, an, very, dearest.
9. Give the other possible degrees of comparison of the following adjectives, commenting upon the forms of these degrees :  
old, white, gay, happy, sad, earnest, minor, next, better, empty, full, true, polite, learned, pleasant, more, further.
10. Express in as many ways as you can, different degrees of the quality of the adjectives mad, pleasant, and undemonstrative.
11. Comment upon the structure of the following :  
cunningest, wonderfulest, startled, lesser, littlest, intimatest, furthest, other, most unkindest, self-same, farther, further, near.
12. Define the values of **the** in the following :  
1. The wolf howls the moon. 2. I saw the man on the platform. 3. I was born in the year 1632, in the city of York. 4. God created the heaven and the earth. 5. In the name of the Most High God. 6. In the painted oriel of the west. 7. Now 'tis the Spring. 8. The Christmas preceding his loss. 8. On the Thursday we went to see the Pope. 9. So much the rather Thou, Celestial Light, shine inward. 10. See, what a rent the envious Casca made. 11. Thou art the Mars of malcontents. 12. The Whigs did not utter a murmur. 13. One of the vessels, named the Pinta. 14. I speak the truth. 15. The brave, 'tis true, do never fear the light.

### THE PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

To parse an adjective, we have to tell first whether it is an ordinary adjective ("adjective of quality"), or whether it is a pronominal adjective, a numeral, or an article. If a pronominal adjective, its class **must** be told; and if possessive, from the personal pronoun of what person and number it comes. If a numeral, whether it is used with the value of an adjective or of a noun, and whether cardinal, ordinal, or fractional. If an article, whether the definite article or the indefinite; if the latter, why **an** and not **a**, or the contrary.

The character of the word as simple or derivative or compound may be given, and, if not simple, its derivation or composition explained.

If the adjective is comparative or superlative, the fact is to be mentioned, and the three degrees of comparison are to be given.

An adjective has but one general construction, that of modifying a noun. But it does this in three different ways, which are more fully distinguished and defined in Chapter XIII: they are called, 1. **ATTRIBUTIVE**: as, eminent men; 2. **APPOSITIVE**: as, men eminent for their services; 3. **PREDICATIVE**: as, Men are eminent according to their services.

After analyzing, as on p. 49, such a sentence as

**This studious boy is the best scholar among all my hundred pupils;**

we first parse **boy**, the bare subject, and then go on to take up as above and in the following order, the adjectives modifying it: **studious**, **This**.

In the predicate of the sentence, we take up first (after the verb) the predicate noun **scholar**, and its modifiers in the following order: **best**, **the**; next we parse **pupils**, and then its modifiers in the following order: **hundred**, **my**, **all**. Among should be next described.

If we have a clause containing a relative pronominal adjective, we are obliged, in order to arrange it in its proper relation to the other clause of the sentence, to take the noun and adjective apart into an antecedent noun and relative pronoun (see p. 170), or, better, treat the subordinate clause as in XIV., 16, e. Compare p. 153.

## EXERCISES.

1. The gentle rain refreshed the thirsty flowers. 2. A transient calm the happy scenes bestow. 3. He was a ready orator, an elegant poet, a skilful gardener, an excellent cook, a most contemptible sovereign. 4. Her mother seemed the younger of the two. 5. I promise thee the fairest wife in Greece. 6. Stains of vice disgrace the fairest honors of the noblest race. 7. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew tree's shade, the rude fore-fathers of the hamlet sleep. 8. The gorgeous East, with richest hand, showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold. 9. Very few people are good economists of their fortune. 10. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels. 11. God in the nature of each being founds its proper bliss. 12. Such a man will win any woman. 13. Any girl, however inexperienced, knows how to accept an offer. 14. A hundred winters snowed upon his breast. 15. Every third word is a lie. 16. These young men were wild and unsteady. 17. By that sin fell the angels. 18. Thebes did his rude unknowing youth engage; he chooses Athens in his riper age. 19. Ayr, gurgling, kissed his pebbled shore, o'erhung with wild woods, thickening, green; the fragrant birch and hawthorn hoar twined amorous round the raptured scene. 20. A little learning is a dangerous thing. 21. Great is truth, and mighty above all things. 22. Unto the pure all things are pure. 23. A thousand flowers enchant the gale with perfume sweet as love's first kiss. 24. With lower, second, and third stories shalt thou make it. 25. In him the emotive was subjected to the intellectual man. 26. They expiate less with greater crimes. 27. My father gave me honor, yours gave land. 28. The lady is dead upon mine and my master's false accusation. 29. There will a worse come in his place. 30. In every art pertaining to her home affairs appeared the careless stillness of a thinking mind self-occupied.

1. Ye meaner fowl give place, I am all splendor, dignity, and grace. 2. Sometimes the flood prevails and then the wind; now one the better then another best. 3. This, my hand, will rather the multitudinous sea incarnadine, making the green one red. 4. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank! 5. Yet, for the foulest of the foul, he dies most joyed, for the redeemed from deepest guilt. 6. The better part of valor is discretion, in the which better part, etc. 7. O, thou fond man! with what loud applause didst thou beat heaven with blessing Rolingbroke. 8. From his birth . . . to his death-stroke on the field of Jena; what a seventy-one years! 9. Let them know of what a monarchy you are the head. 10. I have sat invisible beside you many and many a day. 11. Letter nor line know I never a one. 12. He may one day or another resist you. 13. He remained after half-past nine o'clock in the morning. 14. You are worth double what I give. 15. Pray, who was he, that fellow yonder? 16. I have maintained that salamander of yours every time this two and thirty years. 17. A young man, one Tittlebat Titmouse. 18. I would detain you here some month or two. 19. Some say he is with the Emperor of Russia; some others, he is in Rome. 20. It seemed some six years ago or more. 21. Every twenty paces gives you the prospect of some villa. 22. Truth lies open to all; it is no man's several. 23. I would have been much more a fresher man. 24. What in me was purchased falls upon thee in a more fairer sort. 25. Changed to a worse shape than thou canst be. 26. He is an all but perfect man. 27. This is more than ridiculous; it is immoral. 28. Send me three more copies. 29. There are many unheard-of things.

## GENERAL QUESTIONS.

*The General Questions throughout the book have been taken chiefly from University examination papers. Those suitable for junior pupils should be selected therefrom.*

1. Show, with illustrations, how the absence of case-endings is supplied in English, and what effect this absence has on the general structure of sentences.

2. Reduce the parts of speech to the smallest possible number.

3. Explain to in to-morrow, all-to break his head, early to bed and early to rise, go to now, such a to do, and what went ye out for to see?

3. Account for the use of the italicized letters in the following :

*impossible, number, tender, nightingale, pair, receive, debt, honour, civilisation* (cp. *civilize*), *referring, chemistry, inflammation* (cp. *inflame*), *the Marys, am, asleep.*

4. Define *number, gender, and case*, and show how far your definition applies to English only, and also to any other language you know.

5. How are English compounds known in print and in pronunciation? Which is the defining part in compounds? Comment on *finger-ring, well-head, tell-tale.*

6. Comment on any peculiarities in the spelling, or any incongruity between the spelling and the sound, of the following :

*through, missed, cupboard, duty, beauty, mission, vision, church, chronology, could, seeds, neither.*

7. Show how far the rules of concord in English Syntax are determined by the number and variety of its grammatical inflections.

8. Comment on the form or the history of :

*vixen, weft, wealth, uncouth, twain, farthing, songstress, princess, each, sovereign, hindmost, what, himself, selfsame.*

9. Give reasons for or against including the article among the parts of speech.

10. Give and illustrate the rules of Syntax that concern the use of pronouns.

11. Distinguish etymologically between *sensitive* and *sensible*, *ye* and *you*, *confess* and *profess*, *verity* and *veracity*, *tense* and *time*, *ingenious* and *ingenuous*, *swear* and *forswear*, *seem* and *beseem*.

12. Point out anything faulty or objectionable in the composition of

*witticism, streamlet, height, unreverend, huntress, he-goat, fertilize, anti-state church, pureness.*

13. Account for the change of *cat* into *kitten* when *en* is added.

14. Discuss the question as to whether English adjectives have auxiliaries.

15. Show what purpose each of the parts of speech serves in the expression of our thoughts.

16. Discriminate and illustrate the different values of the suffix *ing*.

17. Account for our present methods of representing number and case in nouns.

18. Discuss the etymology and syntax of *who, what, which, and whether*.

19. Give a pedigree of the English Language which shall show from what sources it has been successively recruited.

20. What does the apostrophe represent in each of the following :

*Jesus', men's, friends', man's ?*

21. What significance lies in the italicized letters in *him, she, it, and ours ?*

22. Indicate traces in Modern English of comparison by vowel change.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## VERBS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. A VERB, as we have seen (II. 13), is a word by means of which we can make an assertion : it implies predication.

Hence, as a sentence is the assertion of something, every sentence must have a verb in it : the verb forms, with or without other words, the predicate of a sentence : thus, in

**Troy was, He sleeps, They went, The boy was beaten,**

there is an assertion, in each particular case, of existence, or a state, or an action, or the enduring of an action, on the part of that which is expressed by the subject of the verb.

2. The chief action of the mind is judgment (II. 5), and the verb is the chief word by which the mind's judgments find expression. Out of this function and its necessities, has arisen the verb's power of combining within itself the ideas of mood, tense, number, and person. The essence, therefore, of the verb is its power of predication ; its other qualities are merely results thereof. Consequently, every word to which we can assign this power becomes a verb : thus, for example,

**run, leap, stand, cry, order, time, number,**

are nouns with a or an, but verbs with I, before them.

Owing to the indispensability of the verb in every sentence, it possesses a greater tenacity of form than any other part of speech. Hence, in it are to be found the most remarkable relics of the synthetic stage of our language, and the proofs of its relationship to the other members of the Teutonic sub-family.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

3. Verbs are as numerous, and as varied in meaning, in a language, as nouns and adjectives, and it is impossible to classify them exhaustively by their meanings. But there is a certain difference of use which separates them into two classes.

**I.—Transitive and Intransitive.**

Some verbs are usually, and almost necessarily, followed by an OBJECT ; that is, by a noun, or its equivalent, in the objective



case, signifying that at which the action of the verb is directed (III. 15). Thus,

I await, I cross, I persuade,

seem by themselves incomplete, and we look for some word expressing the person or thing that is awaited, or persuaded, or crossed: thus,

I await the arrival of the mail;

I cross the road to meet him;

I persuade my friend to go with me.

Other verbs, again, do not take, or are hardly able to take, any such object; if they express an action, they express it completely, without an added object: for example,

I walk, stand, rejoice, weep, become, seem, and so on.

A verb of the former class is said to be a TRANSITIVE verb, or to be used TRANSITIVELY (*transitive* means "going over": that is, the action of the verb is fancifully said to "go over" from the subject to the object); one of the latter class is called INTRANSITIVE (that is, "not transitive"). But this distinction is not an absolute one; many verbs are freely used in both ways, and there is hardly a transitive verb in our language that may not also be used intransitively.

The peculiar uses of transitive and intransitive verbs will be taken up when we come to consider in detail the relations of the words in a sentence (see also VIII. 164 and 166).

## II.—Substantive and Adjective.

4. Occasionally verbs are divided into two classes, according as they assert quality, or mere being or existence: thus, in

He runs and God is great,

runs asserts quality, and is existence. Verbs like runs (that is, almost all verbs) are called ADJECTIVE; and those like is, SUBSTANTIVE.

## III.—Special Classes.

5. But, although, owing to the great variety of the meanings of verbs, it is impossible to form an exhaustive and minute classification on the basis of meaning, there are a few classes, chiefly of derivatives, that are especially noticeable.

a. Some verbs denote the action or condition as being *caused* in an object. Examples are

set, raise, enslave, whiten, enliven, cleanse, burnish, facilitate,  
terrify, tranquilize.

Such verbs are distinguished as CAUSATIVES. See also VIII. 7. c. and d.



b. Others express the repetition or the *frequency* of an act. Examples are

patter from pat. clamber from clam-p, wander from wend,  
grapple " grab, straddle " stride, sparkle " spark ;

and some verbs ending in -k, as

hark, lurk, stalk, walk ;

also verbs of Latin origin ending in -itate, with some in -le : thus,

agitate, hesitate, palpitate ; scribble, trouble, tremble.

Such verbs are distinguished as FREQUENTATIVES.

c. With the notion of repetition is often associated that of *diminution*, as in the case of some of the examples already given. Others possessing this character more markedly are

glimmer from gleam, twinkle from tweak, dribble from drip.

Such verbs are also called DIMINUTIVES. The following, however, are diminutives merely :—

chip from chop, click from clack, drip from drop.

d. Naturally, the frequentative sometimes *intensifies* or strengthens the meaning of the primitive : thus,

sputter from spit, flutter from fly, glitter from gli(n)t,  
bluster " blast, drawl " draw, dazzle " daze.

Such verbs are distinguished as INTENSIVES.

e. A small class of verbs ending in -esce, of Latin origin. express the *inception* or commencement of an act, or a change of state. Examples are

effervesce, deliquesce, coalesce, effloresce.

Such verbs are distinguished as INCEPTIVES.

f. Modern English, however, usually expresses the inceptive, and sometimes the frequentative and the causative meaning, by verb-phrases ; that is, by analytic forms : thus,

to grow warm, to shoot up to manhood, to run to wood, to be  
about to go, to keep saying, to go on saying, to make clean,

and so on.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

6. According to their form, verbs are SIMPLE, or DERIVATIVE, or COMPOUND (Compare V. 25 and VII. 6).

### I.—Simple.

SIMPLE verbs are such as

be, go, sit, see, give, write, alter, admonish.

### II.—Derivative.

7. The most important classes of derivative verbs are as follows :—



d. A very large number of nouns and adjectives are turned directly into verbs, without addition of suffix or prefix, or any other alteration—except sometimes the change of accent or of a final consonant or the sound thereof. Examples are

to witness a will,	to round an angle,
to accent a syllable,	to use caution,
to halve an apple,	to practise music.

### III.—Compound.

8. Compound verbs are made almost solely with prefixes, having the value of adverbs, but adverbs which are also prepositions, and are more usually called such. Examples are

foresee,	forebode,	undermine,	understand,
overspread,	overturn,	uplift,	uproot,
outwit,	outnumber,	withstand,	withhold.

A very few compound verbs have as their first element a noun, or an adjective, or an adverb: for example,

partake (that is, part-take), backbite, browbeat, whitewash,  
rough-hew, fulfil, dry-nurse, cross-question.

## INFLECTED FORMS.

9. Verbs, like nouns and pronouns, have their inflection, or changes of form, in order to express certain changes of application or of meaning; and this inflection is called their CONJUGATION.

### I.—Person and Number.

10. Verbs are varied, to a certain extent, not because of any change in their own individual meaning, but in consequence of differences in the number or in the person of their subject. This is called the inflection of the verb for PERSON and NUMBER.

#### I.—PERSON.

11. For example, with the personal pronouns of the three persons, we use different forms of the verb in

**I love, Thou lovest, He loves (or loveth);**

but only one is different from the others in

**I loved, Thou lovedst, He loved;**

and in

**I can, Thou canst, He can.**

Of these forms, the third person ending in **-th** and the second person in **-st** are now used only in the higher and the solemn

style. For the second person singular, we ordinarily use the second person plural (VI. 15).

No English verb has different forms to put with the plurals of the personal pronouns: thus,

We love, loved, and can;    You love, loved, and can;  
   They love, loved, and can.

12. The addition to the verb-stem of the personal suffixes -st and -s, or -th, is sometimes accompanied with various modifications of the spelling, as in the case of the plurals of nouns, and the comparatives and superlatives of adjectives (V. 34 and VII. 23): thus,

lov-e-st, run-n-est, carr-i-est, teach-e-st;

and the verbal suffix -s is subject to the same euphonic changes as -s, the plural and possessive suffix of nouns: thus,

He bat-s (s-sound); He sin-s (z-sound); He fish-es, or judge-s  
   (another syllable).

## II.—NUMBER.

13. As regards number, the forms of the verb that go with thou and with you are generally different: thus,

Thou lovest, lovedst, and canst;    You love, loved, and can;

and the forms that go with singular and plural subjects of the third person are sometimes different, as

He loves (or loveth);    They loved;

and sometimes the same, as

He loved, and can;    They loved, and can.

But the forms with I and with we are always the same: thus,

I love, loved, and can;    We love, loved, and can;

except, however, in one irregular verb be, which has a special form for its three plural persons, different from any of those of the singular: thus,

I am, Thou art, He is;    We, You, and They are;  
I was, Thou wast, He was;    “                      “                      were.

14. Of the Teutonic languages, so far as we know from written records, the Gothic was the only one that retained the dual number of the verb; and, even in Gothic, it was confined to the first and the second person, the plural being used for the third. No trace of the dual appears even in the earliest extant specimens of Old English.

The suffix of the first person singular was originally *-m*, now lost, except in *am*, the final *-e* of the O. E. first person being the surviving connecting vowel; that of the second person was *-t*, and that of the third, *-th*, which, as early as the eleventh century, was in the Northern dialect softened to *-s* (III. 26). This ending made its way into the language of literature, and after the middle of the sixteenth century became more and more common. In the Northern dialect *-s* is also the suffix of the first and second persons. The modern vulgarisms *Says I* and *Thinks I to myself* are probably survivals of this usage: it is found occasionally in Elizabethan writers also: thus, in Jonson,

My sharpness thou no less disjoins.

In Old English (see VIII. 53) the plural of the present indicative ended in *-th*, originally the suffix of the second person. The subjunctive present and past, and the indicative past, ended throughout in *-n*, originally the suffix of the third person plural. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the Southern dialect had *-th* for the plural of the present indicative; the Northern had *-s* in the second and third persons, or dropped all endings; and the Midland had *-en*, a suffix which was in use in English till the middle of the sixteenth century: thus, in Shakespeare, we find,

And then the whole quire hold their hips and laugh,  
And waxen in their mirth.

Plurals in *-s*, which are now only vulgarisms, are common in Elizabethan literature: thus, in Shakespeare,

His tears runs down his beard, like winter-drops.

The plural of the imperative ended in *-th*, retained in Middle English in the Southern and Midland dialects, but changed to *-s* in the Northern.

## II.—Tense and Mood.

15. Again, verbs are varied in two respects to signify real differences of meaning belonging to themselves. When we assert of a subject an action or a state, we must represent this action or state as existing in some *time* and *manner*. These differences we must express in some way; TENSE-inflection and MOOD-inflection are some of our ways of doing so. Further on we shall see that we use verb-phrases to express the other differences of the mode of assertion, and of the time and the completeness or incompleteness of the action or the state.

### I.—PRESENT AND PAST TENSES.

16. *I love* or *I strike* is used especially of what is going on now, at the present moment, and is, therefore, said to be of the PRESENT tense; while *I loved* is used of something gone by or in the past, and is, therefore, called the PAST tense. And we have in like manner, as corresponding present and past,

<p><b>I wait and I waited,</b> <b>I seek and I sought,</b></p>	<p><b>I give and I gave,</b> <b>I hold and I held.</b></p>
--	--

These two are the only tenses distinguished by real inflection in our verb.

17. English resembles all the other Teutonic languages in having but two tenses, about which as centres have been developed verb-phrases to express the meanings and the relations which other languages express synthetically, and which the progress of thought and the study of Latin rendered necessary in English. The use of these tenses is far more restricted in Modern than in Old English, in which the present form expressed the ideas for which we use future and future-perfect verb-phrases; and the past, those for which we use progressive, perfect, and pluperfect verb-phrases.

18. But the present tense-form has still a variety of meanings besides the normal one of an action or a state at the present time, regarded as single or one whole—a meaning, however, which, from its nature, is seldom found, and which the following illustrate:

I tell you that which you yourselves do know;  
Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

It expresses also

a. The past in animated narrative (the HISTORIC PRESENT): thus,

Towards noon Elector Thuriot gains admittance; finds De  
Launay indisposed for surrender. . . . Thuriot mounts  
with him to the battlements, etc.

b. The future, when the event is fixed and near at hand, or vividly anticipated: thus,

The boys come back next Saturday week.

Or when the reference is clear from the context: thus,

. . . When I am forgotten, as I shall be,  
And sleep in dull, cold marble, where, etc.

c. A universal truth: thus,

Love is strong as death; jealousy is cruel as the grave.

d. A continued or habitual action or state: thus,

And in this state she gallops night by night  
Through lovers' brains, and then they dream of love.  
Let the gods so speed me, as I love  
The name of honor more than I fear death.  
The mountains look upon Marathon,  
And Marathon looks on the sea.

e. The possession of some faculty: thus,

My wife sings, plays, and dances well.

19. The past tense-form also has a variety of meanings besides its usual one of an action or a state in past time, regarded as single or one whole, which the following illustrate:

I found her in her chamber reading Plato; He slept yesterday.

It expresses also, as belonging to past time,



- a. A continual or habitual action or state : thus,

A garden  
Girded it round with a belt of luxuriant blossoms;  
After his return he borrowed without scruple, and was  
almost constantly in debt.

- b. The possession of some faculty : thus,

He wrote better than any of those he employed.

## II.—THE VALUES OF MOODS AND MODAL VERB-PHRASES.

20. The grammatical moods and modal verb-phrases serve to indicate the speaker's manner of viewing the action or the state expressed by the verb. This action or state may be viewed as an *actual fact*, or as a *possibility*, or as a *necessity*. In the scheme adopted in this grammar, the indicative mood is the mood of fact; the subjunctive mood and the conditional and the potential modal verb-phrases are the mood of possibility; and the obligative mood is the mood of necessity. The other grammatical mood, the imperative, is really included in the mood of possibility.

## III.—INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE MOODS.

21. Again, the assertion may be a simple statement of what the speaker treats as *fact*: thus, in

John went, They struck him, He said that I was there, the verbs *went*, *struck*, *said*, and *was* are said to be in the INDICATIVE mood: the speaker here treats as facts John's going, their striking him, his saying that I was there, and my being there; although these may not really be facts.

But the assertion may be a statement of what the speaker treats as *existing in his thought only*: thus, in

If I be; Though I go; Supposing he were here;  
Except God be with him; Lest she forget her duty;

the verbs *be*, *go*, *were*, and *forget* are said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE mood: the speaker here treats my being, my going, his being, God's being, and her forgetting as mere conceptions, and, therefore, as possibilities, not as facts; although they may be facts in the future, or even when he is thinking of them.

## IV.—PECULIARITIES OF THE USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

22. As, therefore, by the indicative we express what we view as actual fact, its application has no variety. The subjunctive, however, admits of various applications: by it we express merely our conceptions, and these the mind may shape in a variety of ways, as, for instance,

wishes, suppositions, conditions, or uncertainties arising from circumstances or the ignorance of the speaker: thus, in

I wish that God were with us, or, its equivalent, God be with us, God's being with us is a mere conception of the mind, and, therefore, not a fact, but a possibility. So, too, with his doing so, in

If he were to do so, I should despise him.

23. What is stated of anything in thought merely can have no meaning except when taken in connection with some other statement. The subjunctive, therefore, is always dependent (hence the name [III. 9]); and the possibility it expresses is always in the logical subject of an equivalent categorical (that is, "unconditioned") sentence: thus, the thoughts in the sentences in 22 above may be expressed as follows:—

God's being with us (conceived as a possibility) is a thing that I wish;  
His doing so (conceived as a possibility) is a condition that would determine me to despise him.

Hence, generally,

*When the action or the state expressed by a verb is conceived as possible, the possibility may be expressed in the logical subject of an equivalent categorical sentence.*

24. In English, however, owing to the natural tendency of all languages to drop unnecessary distinctions, we often use the indicative where the subjunctive or one of its equivalent verb-phrases of the conditional and potential moods might still be a proper form, provided either the context shows the possibility, or it is unnecessary to show it: thus, we say—

If he is there, I shall speak to him;

the possibility being, in this case, infused into the clause by the *if*; and *be*, the special verb-form expressive of possibility, being, therefore, unnecessary. So, too, with

I do not know whether it is so; He will stay till he sees me;

I will see that he does so; When he comes, I will speak to you;

I asked him who was there.

Generally, indeed, except in purely imaginary cases (sec 22 above), or where the possibility is to be strongly marked, we need not indicate the possibility by a special form of the verb.

25. But, in some cases, the indicative is especially suitable: thus, in

If he was guilty, he deserved punishment;

Though he slays me, yet will I trust in him;

the meaning is

His being guilty (conceived for argument's sake as a *fact*) is the condition, etc.;

His slaying me (an *actual fact*) will not prevent my trusting him;

whereas the use of the subjunctives *were* and *slay* would represent mere possibility.

26. In Old English, the use of the subjunctive was more extended than at present. It was used

1. In principal clauses to express a wish or a command;

2. In dependent clauses: a. To express the opinions of another (indirect narration); b. After verbs of thinking and desiring; c. To express result; d. In putting a general case; e. In conditional clauses; f. In concessive clauses; and in many other kinds of subordinate clauses.

#### V.—IMPERATIVE MOOD.

27. The IMPERATIVE is the mood of command or entreaty: thus,

Go away! Be silent! Leave us; See him.

The imperative is used only in the second person; but the subjunctive is occasionally used for it in the poetic and the more solemn style, in the first person plural and the third person of both numbers: thus,

“Now tread we a measure,” said young Lochinvar;  
Go we to the king; Thy will be done;  
The Lord be with you.

These forms are sometimes described as OPTATIVE subjunctives; that is, subjunctives used in the expression of a wish (*optative* means “expressing a wish”).

28. In Old English, the imperative is found only in the second person, but with distinct inflections for the singular and the plural, which, after a period of confusion, disappeared in the fifteenth century (see VIII. 53). In the first and the third person, the subjunctive, followed by the personal pronouns, was widely employed, a usage (illustrated above) of Modern English also. The first person plural was also expressed by an infinitive preceded by *utan* (*uton* or *utun*), which itself properly means “Let us go”: thus,

*Utan wircan mannan*, “Let us make man.”

But the introduction of the modern verb-phrase with *let* drove this form out of use after the fourteenth century.

#### VI.—MOOD-INFLECTIONS.

29. a. The indicative is the mood of ordinary use, and has the greatest variety of inflections for person and number.

b. No verb except *be* has a past subjunctive different from the indicative: thus,

I was,      I were;

and, even in the present tense, a difference, except in the same verb *be*, is found only in the second and third persons singular: thus,

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
thou lovest,	thou love;
he loves,	he love;
I am, etc.,	we, or you, or they be;
but I love, and	I love.

Hence the subjunctive, as a separate mood, is almost lost in our language. To express what it once expressed in English, and what it still expresses in many other languages, we use either the indicative, or compound forms made with auxiliaries—verb-phrases—which will be described further on.

c. The imperative has but a single form, which is the same as that of the present subjunctive, and, like it, is used indifferently as singular and as plural. Its subject **thou**, or **you**, or **ye**, may be expressed, coming after the verb; but it is more usually omitted: thus,

**go or go thou,**

**go or go you or ye.**

In the first person of the optative subjunctive, the subject follows the verb, and is always expressed; while in the third person it sometimes goes before and sometimes follows, being also always expressed: thus,

**The Lord make His face shine upon thee!**

**Blessed be the peacemakers!**

The imperative also is often expressed by verb-phrases.

#### DERIVED FORMS.

30. The indicative, subjunctive, and imperative forms that have been described above are all the forms of inflection which the verb has in English. But there are certain derived words, made from almost every verb in the language, which are so important, and so much used, and used in such ways, that they are always given along with the inflected forms, as part of the conjugation of the verb, although they are not really verbs, as they make no assertion.

##### I.—Infinitives.

31. To say

**He gives a book,**

**or**

**He goes,**

is to declare that some one is the doer of a certain action on a certain object, or is simply the doer of an action, at the present time: the action is itself expressed by

**giving or to give,**

**or**

**going or to go,**

which may then, like any other nouns expressing an action, be made the subject or the object of a verb: thus,

**To give is better than to receive; Giving is better than receiving; He liked to go; He liked going.**

In a great many cases also (but usually when in an objective construction) the **to** may be omitted : thus,

**He can** (or **dare**, or **had better**, or **cannot** but, or **saw**  
him) **give** (or **go**).

The forms **giving**, **to give**, or **give**, and **going**, **to go**, or **go**, as used above, are called **INFINITIVES** (the term means "unlimited," or "indefinite"; the general idea of action or state is not limited, as in the ordinary forms, to a particular subject, and consequently these forms possess neither person nor number).

The infinitive is, thus, a species of verbal noun, a part of speech which expresses in the noun-form that which the verb asserts.

32. The **to** which sometimes forms part of the infinitive is the preposition, but it has not always the same force. It is used

a. Sometimes, as a mere sign, without any meaning : as in

**He likes** (or **wishes**, or **intends**, or **tells me**) **to go**.

b. But sometimes also with the prepositional meaning which it had in Old English, as in

**He came to see me** ;

**Afraid to go** (that is, **of going**) ;

**Ready to run** (that is, **for running**) ;

**Sorry to hear** (that is, **for hearing**) ;

**A work to do** (that is, **for doing**) ;

**Reason to go** (that is, **for going**). .

Consequently, used thus, the infinitive with **to**, like any other phrase beginning with a preposition, has the force of an adverb or an adjective.

## II.—Participles.

33. The person who gives, or who goes, is described as a **giving** or a **going** person ; what he gives is described as a **given** thing ; and we say **joys gone forever**. Here **giving**, **going**, **given**, and **gone** modify the nouns with which they are connected, while they express also that which is asserted by the verb. **Given** and **gone**, and **giving** and **going**, as thus used, are called **PARTICIPLES**. (The term means "participating," "sharing"; such words, while really adjectives, sharing also the nature of verbs.)

The participle is, thus, a species of verbal adjective, a part of speech which expresses in the adjective-form that which the verb asserts.

And the infinitive and the participle both belong to that peculiar class of words, each member of which partakes of the natures of two parts of speech (II. 39. 2).

34. It follows from the description of the infinitive that it also is a "participle" in the etymological sense of the term; and from that of the participle that it also is, in the same sense, an "infinitive." Grammarians, however, have restricted the use of these terms as above.

### III.—Peculiarities of Infinitives and Participles.

35. Infinitives and participles are not the only noun-forms and adjective-forms derived from verbs. The giving person may also be described as a **giver**, and the given thing as a **gift**. These words are likewise derivatives from **give**, and words like **giver** are made from a very large part of the verbs of our language. But infinitives and participles differ from other derivatives from verbs:

1. They are formed from every verb in the language almost without exception for certain regular and definable uses.

2. They have also uses which are peculiar:

a. The infinitive is an abstract noun, but without the inflections of the noun; the participle is an adjective, but without the capability of comparison; and each resembles the verb, but is without its inflections or its power of predication. Each expresses merely the condition of that which the verb predicates: the participle expresses it as incomplete (**giving, going**), or as complete (**given, gone**); and the infinitive expresses it as one whole, without reference to the incompleteness or the completeness, and so, indefinitely (**to give, give, or giving**).

b. Both imply time, but the idea of *definite* time, which seems to belong to them, is only infused into them by the main verb with which they are associated: thus, in

I like (or liked, or shall like) to give (or giving),

the condition of the act expressed by the infinitives **to give** or **giving**, is present, or past, or future, according as the main verb is present, or past, or future.

So, too, with **go** in

I see (or saw, or shall see) him go;

and with the participles **falling** or **fallen**, in

I see (or saw, or shall see) him falling (or fallen).



c. By virtue of their verbal nature, both the participle and the infinitive may have the same adjuncts that the verbs from which they come take, and they may be followed by objects, direct and indirect: thus, we say

**I give him my forgiveness willingly**

(where **him** is the indirect and **forgiveness** the direct object of **give**, and **willingly** is its adverbial modifier); so we say also, using the infinitive,

**to give (or giving) him my forgiveness willingly;**

or, using the participle,

**John found me giving him my forgiveness willingly,**

and

**My forgiveness was given willingly;**

whereas, if we used an ordinary noun, like **giver** or **gift**, we should have to say, for example,

**A gift to him with willingness of my forgiveness.**

d. By virtue of their noun power, the infinitive with **to** and the infinitive in **-ing** may also be modified by a predicative adjective: thus,

**To play (or playing) is pleasant;**

and the infinitive in **-ing** may also be modified by a noun or a pronoun in the possessive: thus,

**John's (or His) going is unexpected.**

#### IV.—Forms of Infinitives.

36. There are two infinitives:

a. One is of the same form as the simplest verbal form, the stem or *root-word* of the verbal forms (III. 31 and IV. 36): as  
**go, see, walk, deny, familiarize.**

As we have seen, it often has the preposition **to** put before it: thus,

**to go, to see, to walk, to deny, to familiarize.**

This infinitive, with or without **to**, is called the *root-infinitive*. The form with **to** is, however, sometimes distinguished as the *GERUNDIAL* infinitive, in reference to its having been connected with the dative case of the Old English gerund, which was so named on account of the resemblance of some of its uses to those of the Latin gerund.

- b. The other infinitive ends in *-ing*, as  
going, seeing, walking, denying, familiarizing.

This infinitive is known simply as the INFINITIVE IN *-ing*, or as the GERUND (*gerund* means "carrying on," the reference being to the continuous action or state which the Latin gerund was regarded as expressing).

The root-infinitive and the gerund, with the infinitive phrases that belong to them (VIII. 148), have in part the same uses and in part different uses, being in some cases interchangeable, and in others not. These uses, and the rules as to the presence or absence of *to*, will be taken up hereafter when we come to consider the way in which words are put together to form sentences (XV.).

37. The Old English infinitive was treated as a noun; it ended in the nom. and acc. in *-n* added to the verbal stem with a connective vowel *a*: thus,

*ridan*, "to ride"; *sendan*, "to send"; *standan*, "to stand";  
*lufian*, "to love."

After the Conquest, *-an* became weakened to *-en* (IV. 45. c.), but the usage as to the retention of final *-n* was unsettled, infinitives without *-n* being for several centuries as common as those with *-n*. In the fourteenth century, the tendency to drop the *-n* became more general; in the fifteenth, it became universal; and in the sixteenth, the infinitive suffix was used for poetic effect only. The *-e* thus left ceased to be sounded, being finally retained in some cases and dropped in others: thus,

ride, send, stand, love.

38. The infinitive had also a dative (the so-called "gerundial infinitive"), invariably preceded by *tó* and ending at first in *-anne*, an inflection formed by adding to the nom. form the dative ending *-e* and doubling the *n*. The commonest distinction of function may be seen in the following:—

*Hu mæg thés his flæsc us syllan tó etanne?* "How may this (man) his flesh  
us give to eat?"  
*Gif hwá earan hæbbe tó gehyranne.* "If any one ears have to hear."

This dative suffix then weakened to *-enne* and *-ene*, becoming finally *-en*, the same form as the nom. and acc. infinitive, but preceded by *tó*. The effect of this unification of form was that, in Early English, confusion took place, ending in the root-infinitive's almost always taking before it *tó*, which gradually came to be regarded as part of the infinitive itself.

To the end of the fourteenth century, the gerundial infinitive occasionally retained a distinct form, *-ende* or *-inge*, being confounded with the imperfect participle; but, by the beginning of the Modern English period, it had wholly disappeared, its form undergoing the same final change as the root-infinitive, and some of its functions surviving in the adjectival and the adverbial uses of the modern root-infinitive: thus,

A house to let; Good to eat; A sower went out to sow.

39. The true origin of the infinitive in *-ing* is doubtful, owing to the confusion that resulted from the fact that the modern suffix represents in Old English *-ung* in verbal nouns, as *ending*, "ending," "end"; (2) *-end(e)* or *-ind(e)* in imperfect participles, as *He is cumende*, "He is coming"; (3) and the gerundial infinitive in *-enne* (seldom the root-infinitive in *-en*, or the perf. participle in *-en*). It seems probable, however, that, on the unification of their forms, the verbal noun acquired from the participle its power of expressing state, or action, and of forming compound verb-phrases; thus becoming the modern gerund, or infinitive in *-ing*. The historical explanation of the construction

Running races is a favorite game,

is, therefore, that it was represented in Old English by the equivalent of

Running of races is a favorite game,

in which the O. E. for *running* would be a mere verbal noun in *-ung*; and that when both verbal noun and imperfect participle assumed the form in *-ing*, the former became verbal in force, dropping the *of* in cases where it had taken it.

#### V.—Forms of Participles.

40. There are two participles :

a. One ends in *-ing*, as

going, seeing, walking, loving, giving.

This form is called the IMPERFECT participle, as it expresses an *incomplete* action or state of the noun which it modifies.

b. The other participle has a variety of endings, *-d*, or *-t*, or *-n*, or none at all : as in

walked, loved, taught, given, gone, seen, run.

This form is called the PERFECT participle, as it expresses a *completed* action or state of the noun it modifies.

It is also called the PASSIVE participle, as, when formed from transitive verbs, it denotes state as the result of suffering or enduring (*passive* means "enduring") the action expressed by the verb : thus, anything *seen* or *loved*, or *taught*, or *given* has had the act of *seeing*, or *loving*, or *teaching*, or *giving* performed upon it, and its state is the result of "suffering" or "enduring" this act.

41. As a form in *-ing* in English may discharge the function of an adjective, an imperfect participle, an infinitive in *-ing* (or gerund), or a verbal noun (that is, a noun derived from a verb), it is necessary to distinguish carefully these parts of speech. The following examples illustrate their differences :

This very amusing book,	adjective ;
A father amusing his child well,	participle ;
The amusing of his child is commendable,	verbal noun ;
A father's amusing his child well,	gerund.

So, too,

The trotting horse,	adjective ;
A horse trotting quickly down the street,	participle ;
The trotting of the horse,	verbal noun ;
A horse's trotting quickly down the street,	gerund ;

42. In both conjugations, the imperfect participle was formed in the Midland dialect by adding *-ende* to the stem, as in *sing-ende*, "singing." During the Early English period, this suffix often showed itself as *-ind(e)* (*singinde*) in the language of the South, and *-and(e)* (*singande*) in that of the North. In the former, it was as early as the twelfth century confounded with the gerundial infinitive in *-enne*, and the verbal noun in *-ung*. As one result of the confusion of these forms, *-ing*, now the established ending of the gerund, was adopted, about the close of the Middle English period, by the Midland dialect, from the Southern as the ending of the imperfect participle. For a time, however, thereafter we find occasionally in literature) even in Spenser and Ben Jonson) the Northern forms in *-and* : thus,

*pleasand things, twa trilland brooks, glitterand, trenchand.*

43. The distinctive ending of the Old English perfect participle of the Old conjugation was *-en*, except in a few cases in which the *e* was syncopated. After the Conquest, this ending was frequently dropped, especially in the South. The unsettled usage in this matter has produced a good deal of variety in the modern forms :

- a. Some verbs have dropped the *-en* : thus,

*begunnen, sungen, rungen* have become **begun, sung, rung**.

- b. Others have retained it, some of these, however, syncopating the *e* : thus, we have

**fallen, given, shaken, torn, known.**

- c. A third class had two forms, one with *-n*, the other without it : thus,

*beaten, beat ; drunken, drunk ; bidden, bid ; bitten, bit ; chosen, chose.*

In Modern English, the longer of such double forms is generally preferred for the participle, except in the case of certain forms, as

**bounden, bound ; drunken, drunk ; shrunk, shrunken ;**

in which the longer form is used as an adjective. But usage is not fixed as to many of these forms.

- d. In some verbs, again, the past tense has driven out the regular perfect participle : thus, we have

*sat for sitten, stood for standen, held for holden, shone for shinen.*

This movement, now arrested, was very general during the Elizabethan age, when inflections were being discarded and usage was unsettled: thus, in Shakespeare, we find

*arose* for *arisen*, *froze* for *frozen*, *mistook* for *mistaken*, *wrote* for *written*.

There is a tendency at present with some writers to substitute *drank* for *drunk*; but the substitution has not the sanction of the best usage.

44. The distinct *e* ending of the Old English perfect participle of the New conjugation was *-d* (the older Teutonic *-th* [as still in *uncouth*], *-t*, or *-d* [IV. 13]), suffixed to the stem by a connecting vowel *o* or *e*, as in *lof-o-d*, "loved"; or *dém-e-d*; *-d* often becoming *-t* by assimilation when the connective was not used. Finally, *e* became the only connecting vowel. The dropping of the final *-e* of the past tense suffix *-de* (III. 27) unified the forms of the perfect participle and the past tense; so that the changes that affected the latter affected the former also. During the Middle English period, however, some verbs ending in *-te*, *-t*, or *-d*, did not add *-ed* to form this participle—a usage which seems to have been dictated by a regard for euphony, and of which we find examples in Early English also. Shakespeare, for instance, uses as participles,

*acquit*, *contrast*, *enshield*, *hoist*, *heat*, *wed*, *addict*.

The same usage is found to have prevailed in the case of many words derived from Latin participles which, however, were themselves felt to possess an adjectival value, Latin words when first introduced having had some of their original force: thus,

*miscreate*, *create*, *consummate*, *pollute*.

The legal term *situate* for *situated* is a survival for this usage.

45. The O. E. prefix *ge-* was added, in the earliest period of the language, to nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and adverbs, as well as to verbs. After the Conquest it was weakened to *y-* or *i-*, and, from the twelfth to the sixteenth century, it was generally restricted to the perfect participle: thus,

*gelufod*, "loved"; *ymaked*, "maked"; *ygo*, "gone"; *idraht*, "dreaded."

Occasionally, since the sixteenth century, it has appeared in the language of poetry or of burlesque: thus, in Milton,

Goddess . . . ycleaped Euphrosyne; under a Star-ypointing Pyramid;  
and in the provincial dialects of England, many words retain the prefix which has undergone still greater phonetic change: thus, in Dorset,

Have ye a-vound (*i.e.* found) the book?

## OLD AND NEW CONJUGATIONS.

### I.—Differences.

46. If we start from the simplest form of the verb, the stem or root-infinitive, there are in English (as in the other languages most nearly related to English) two principal ways of making from it the past tense and the perfect participle. And, according as they follow the one or the other of these

ways, English verbs are divided into two great classes (which are called CONJUGATIONS), because unlike each other in their mode of inflection or conjugation.

47. The one class or conjugation regularly forms its past tense by a mere change in the vowel of the stem, and its perfect participle by adding **-n** or **-en**; and the vowel of the participle is the same as that of the stem, or the same as that of the past, or else different from both: thus,

root-infin.,	give;	past tense,	gave;	perfect part.,	given;
“	bite;	“	bit;	“	bitten;
“	fly;	“	flew;	“	flown.

This is called the OLD (or PRIMARY) conjugation, because the verbs belonging to it are primitive verbs of the Teutonic verb-family.

The other class regularly forms its past tense and its perfect participle, both alike, by the addition of **-ed** or **-d** to the stem or root-infinitive:

root-infin.,	love;	past tense,	loved;	perfect part.,	loved;
“	wish;	“	wished;	“	wished.

This is called the NEW (or SECONDARY) conjugation, because all the verbs of this conjugation are of later origin than those of the other, having been derived therefrom or borrowed from other languages.

Sometimes, also, the Old conjugation is called the STRONG conjugation, and the New, the WEAK; it having been fancifully represented that the Old conjugation was *strong* enough to form its past tense from its own resources without outside help; whereas the New was too *weak* to do so, and had to get the aid of an additional syllable.

The origin of these pasts has been already explained in III. 27 and 29, and IV. 45. d. (2); all of their history that is of importance is given under 53 and 87 below, and in the subsequent details of the irregularities of the conjugations.

48. A modification of the vowel of the stem (due, however, to a different cause from that of the Old conjugation) is found in a few verbs which take also an additional syllable, and are, therefore, of the New conjugation: as **tell**, **told**.

The distinction between the conjugations consists, therefore, in the adding or the not adding to the stem, of a syllable to form the past tense, not in the varying or the not varying of the vowel.



## II.—Paradigm.

49. Below are given, by way of model, all the forms of two regular verbs, one from each conjugation :

## I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.***New Conjugation.**

Pers. Sing.

1. I love
2. Thou lovest
3. He loves (loveth)

Pl.

- We love  
You (Ye) love  
They love

**Old Conjugation.**

1. I give
2. Thou givest
3. He gives (giveth)

- We give  
You (Ye) give  
They give

*Past Tense.***New Conjugation.**

1. I loved
2. Thou lovedst
3. He loved

- We loved  
You (Ye) loved  
They loved

**Old Conjugation.**

1. I gave
2. Thou gavest
3. He gave

- We gave  
You (Ye) gave  
They gave

**New Conjugation.****Old Conjugation.**

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

Sing. and Pl.

- 1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., **love**      (If) I, thou, he, etc., **give**

*Past Tense.*

- 1, 2, 3. (If) I, thou, he, etc., **loved**      (If) I, thou, he, etc., **gave**

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. love

give

## II.—DERIVED FORMS.

## ROOT-INFINITIVE.

love or to love

give or to give

## GERUND, OR INFINITIVE IN -ING.

loving

giving

## IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

loving

giving

## PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

loved

given

50. It will be noticed that the regular verbs of the New conjugation thus have only six actually different forms: namely,

**love, lovest, loves (or loveth), loved, lovedst, loving;**

while the regular verbs of the Old conjugation have seven: namely,

**give, givest, gives (or giveth), gave, gavest, giving, given.**

### III.—Principal Parts.

51. In both conjugations, the root-infinitive, the imperative, and the present tense (in the subjunctive, and the plural and first singular of the indicative) are the same as that simplest form of the verb which we call the stem. And the imperfect participle and the gerund differ from them only by adding **-ing**. We need, therefore, to know only the root-infinitive, the past tense, and the perfect participle, in order to understand the whole inflection of any verb. Hence these three are called the **PRINCIPAL PARTS** of the verb, and, in describing any verb, they are given. Thus,

**love, loved, loved;**

**teach, taught, taught;**

**go, went, gone;**

**give, gave, given;**

**sing, sang, sung;**

**be, was, been.**

### IV.—Tense Inflection.

52. As regards the inflection of the tenses, the subjunctive tenses have but one form for all persons and both numbers.

In the indicative, the second person singular adds **st** or **est** in both tenses; and the addition generally makes another syllable—always, if the first person has only one syllable, or ends in a sibilant or hissing sound (V. 34. c.): thus,

**loved, lovedst, confessest, cherished.**

The third person singular is like the first in the past tense, but in the present adds **s** or **es**, which does not make another syllable except after a sibilant sound. Thus,

**loves, gives, bids, picks, hopes;**

but

**confesses, fixes, chooses, cherishes, pitches, judges.**

The added **s** is pronounced as **s** or as **z**, according to the same rules which were given above (V. 34) for the **s** of the plural of nouns.

The third person singular present has in the higher and the solemn style a second form, made by the ending **-th** or **-eth**, almost always making an additional syllable. Thus,

loveth, giveth, goeth, hopeth, fixeth ;

but disableth.

#### V.—Old English Verbal Forms.

53. The following is a model paradigm of the verbal forms of *bindan*, an O. E. verb of the Old conjugation. To it are appended those forms of *hælan* of the New conjugation, the inflections or the suffixes of which are different from those of the corresponding forms of the paradigm of the Old conjugation. These O. E. forms are accompanied by the Early, Middle, and Modern English forms, which will serve to convey a general idea of the process by which the O. E. inflections have been reduced. These forms should be studied in connection with 14, 37-39, and 42-45 above.

#### Old Conjugation.

OLD ENGLISH.      EARLY AND MIDDLE ENGLISH.      MODERN ENGLISH.

#### I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

##### INDICATIVE MOOD.

##### Present Tense.

##### Singular.

Pers.	OLD ENGLISH.	EARLY AND MIDDLE ENGLISH.	MODERN ENGLISH.
1.	<i>bind-e</i>	<i>bind-e</i>	I bind
2.	<i>bind-est</i>	<i>bind-est</i> (and <i>-es</i> , <i>-is</i> , and <i>-ys</i> , in Northern dialects)	Thou bind-est
3.	<i>bind-eth</i>	<i>bind-eth</i> or <i>bint</i> (and <i>-es</i> , <i>-is</i> , and <i>-ys</i> in Northern dialects)	He bind-s or bind-eth

##### Plural.

1, 2, and 3.	<i>bind-ath</i>	<i>bind-eth</i> or <i>binde</i> (and <i>-es</i> , <i>-is</i> , and <i>-ys</i> in Northern dialects ; <i>-en</i> in Midland)	We, You, and They bind
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##### Past Tense.

##### Singular.

1.	<i>band</i>	<i>band</i> ( <i>bond</i> )	I bound
2.	<i>band-e</i>	<i>bond-e</i>	Thou bound-est
3.	<i>band</i>	<i>band</i> ( <i>bond</i> )	He bound

##### Plural.

1, 2, and 3.	{ <i>bundun</i> , or <i>bundon</i>	<i>bond-en</i> , <i>bond-e</i> , <i>bond</i> , and <i>bound</i>	We, You, and They bound
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##### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

##### Present Tense.

##### Singular.

1, 2, and 3.	<i>bind-e</i>	<i>bind-e</i>	I, Thou, and He bind
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##### Plural.

1, 2, and 3.	{ <i>bind-an</i> , or <i>-en</i>	<i>bind-en</i> , and <i>-a</i>	We, You, and They bind
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## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Past Tense.*

## Singular.

1, 2, and 3.	<i>hæl-de</i>	<i>hel-e-de</i> , and <i>-e-d</i>	I, Thou, and He healed
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## Plural.

1, 2, and 3.	{ <i>hæl-den</i> , or <i>-don</i>	<i>hel-e-den</i> , <i>-e-de</i> , and <i>-e-d</i>	We, You, and They healed
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## II.—DERIVED FORMS.

## PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

(ge) <i>hæl-ed</i> (y- or i-) <i>hel-ed</i>	heal-ed
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The inflections of the present tenses, the imperative mood, the root-infinitive, and the imperfect participle of *hælan* are the same as those of the corresponding forms of *bindan*.

## VI.—The Conflict between the Conjugations.

54. In Modern English there are only seventy-seven simple verbs that are known to be representatives of O. E. verbs of the Old conjugation (some of them have New forms as well), and ten originally of the New but now of the Old conjugation. In Old English, on the contrary, there were more than three hundred simple verbs of the Old conjugation, not to speak of numerous derivatives therefrom. The causes of the difference are easily traced, though the changes have been so capricious that it is not always easy to account for particular existing forms.

Even in Old English the Old mode of past formation had died out, and all purely English verbs derived from other verbs or from nouns, as well as the few verbs of foreign origin, were of the New conjugation. The Old conjugation, therefore, unlike the New, received no additions during this period. Under these circumstances, it was natural (IV. 47) that a desire should show itself to assimilate all to the larger class; and there is proof that it did even before the Conquest. This tendency was afterwards increased by two circumstances:

a. The grammatical confusion that followed the Conquest. The Normans, unable to master the distinctions of the conjugations, confounded them, and, as far as possible, made all verbs follow the analogy of the New.

b. The great influx of words from Norman French which displaced many verbs of the Old conjugation and added immensely to the stock of verbs of the New.

For a time, therefore, the tendency was to discard the Old conjugation. This, however, was checked by the conservative influence of a great national literature (I. 41). Since the reign of Elizabeth, no Old verbs have disappeared, although at times a variety of usage has prevailed. The modern tendency seems to be, not only to retain our surviving Old verbs, but even to increase their number: thus, the once common forms,

digged, shaken, shined, strived, thrived, waked,  
are rarer than  
dug, shook, shone, strove, thrrove, woke;  
or are wholly out of use.

## VII.—Classes of Conjugations and Irregularities.

### I.—OLD CONJUGATION.

55. We shall now take up the two conjugations separately, especially in order to notice their irregularities.

The characteristics of verbs of the Old conjugation, as we have seen, are these: that they change the vowel of the stem, either in the past tense or the perfect participle or in both; that they take no added ending in the past tense and that the ending of the participle, if it have any, is *n*.

56. The regular verbs of this conjugation fall into a number of distinct classes; but the grounds of the division are to be seen only in the older forms of English, and in some of the other languages related to English, and the limits of the classes have been very much confused by irregular changes.

57. One cause of the irregularities in our present English has been the tendency to change the vowel either of the past tense or of the participle, so as to make these two forms agree with each other. Thus, for instance, *tare*, the Old past tense of *tear*, has gone out of use, having been replaced by *tore*, which contains the same vowel as *torn*, the perfect participle. So, too, the Old pasts

*brake*, *bare*, *spake* have become *broke*, *bore*, *spoke*.

And the Old perfect participles

*holden*, *sit* (or *sitten*), *standen*, *waken* have given way to the past forms *held*, *sat*, *stood*, *woke*.

58. Moreover, the *-en* or *-n*, which was formerly the constant ending of the perfect participle, is now entirely lost in many verbs, as in the Old forms,

*swungen*, *slungen*, *rungen*, *comen*, *foughten*.

In other verbs, again, it may be retained or left off: thus, *gotten* and *got*, *slidden* and *slid*, *chidden* and *chid*.

59. Some verbs, which were formerly of the Old conjugation, now, either sometimes or always, make a part of their forms according to the New: thus,

*hew*, *hewed*, *hewn* or *hewed*;

*sow*, *sowed*, *sown* or *sowed*;

*hang*, *hung* or *hanged*. *hung* or *hanged*;



crow, crew or crowded, crowed ;  
shear, shore or sheared, shorn or sheared.

And not a few have been transferred to the New altogether :  
 thus,

brew, brewed, brewed ;      slip, slipped, slipped ;  
dive, dived, dived ;      sprout, sprouted, sprouted.

60. Hence, in classifying the verbs of the Old conjugation, we do not try to distinguish the irregular from the regular ones, and merely group together those which, as we use them now, are on the whole most alike in their inflection.

### 1.—*Classes and Irregularities.*

61. A class of verbs form their present, past, and perfect participle thus :

sing, sang, sung ;      begin, began, begun.

Such are ring, sling, spring, swim, and stink ; further, drink, shrink, sink, which have for participles also drunken, shrunk, sunken, though these are now used chiefly as adjectives. All these verbs, however, sometimes form their past like the participle, as sung, swum, sunk. Of spin, the old past span instead of spun is now out of use, and we say only

spin, spun, spun.

So, too, with cling, fling, sting, string, swing, wring, slink, and win (won). In run, ran, run, the present is of the same form as the participle.

62. The verbs bind, find, grind, wind are conjugated thus :

bind, bound, bound ;      find, found, found.

With them nearly agrees

fight, fought, fought.

63. In Old English, the plural of the past tense differed from the singular by adding *-on* with a change of vowel (IV. 43. c. 3) : thus,

root-infin. ringan, to ring ; past, sing. rang, pl. runгон ; p.p. rungen ;  
 “ findan, to find ; “ fand, “ fundon ; “ funden.

After the Conquest, the *-on* became in succession *-en*, *-e* pronounced, and *-e* mute, which finally disappeared. In this way there were for a time in many verbs two forms for the past tense, one being the same as the perfect participle, which also had lost its suffix. The pasts, therefore, in 61 and 62 above, which have *a*, come from the singular ; the others in *u* and *-ou*, from the plural. In one form, won, and in clomb, an Old past of climb (now New), the plural *u* has become *o*.

Such double forms were very common in Middle English, but the tendency of Modern English is to reduce their number, and to prefer the plural form on account of its being the same as the participle (IV. 47). *Ran*, however, has been selected apparently to prevent confusion with the present *run* (in the Scotch dialect, still *rin*), into which *u* has intruded, the O. E. root-infinitive having been *rinnan*. *Fling* and *string* are not O. E. verbs.

64. The principal parts of *speak* are  
*speak, spoke* (anciently *spake*), *spoken*.

And, like it, are conjugated *break, bear, swear, wear, tear*, all of them having an Old past with the vowel *a* now out of use. *Bear* has two forms of the participle, *borne* and *born*, which are now, though not originally, of somewhat different meaning. *Cleave*, "split," is like these, or of the New conjugation.

Nearly like these are *steal, weave, tread*, but with a past in *o* only: thus,

*steal, stole, stolen*.

*Heave* and *shear*, which are usually of the New conjugation, have also, the one an Old past, *hove*; the other an Old participle, *shorn*. *Get* (with *beget* and *forget*) has *got* (anciently *gat*) and *gotten* or *got*.

65. A few verbs follow, quite irregularly, the model of *give*. Those most like it are

*bid, bade* (sometimes *bid*), *bidden*; *eat, ate* (or *eat, pr. ět*),  
*eaten*; *see, saw, seen*.

More irregular are

*lie, lay, lain*; *sit, sat, sat*.

66. Of the verbs in 64 and 65 above, the following owe the *o*-sound of the past to assimilation to the perfect participle (IV. 46. b):

*speak, break, bear, tear, steal, shear*;

and by analogy with these verbs, *get, tread, and weave*, which should regularly have an *e*-sound in the p.p. (the O. E. forms were *geten, treden, wesen*), have taken an *o*-sound, which has found its way into the past tense also. Indeed, in Old English, *speak* and *break* had p.p. of both forms: thus,

*specen* and *spocen*, and *brecen* and *brocen*.

*Hove* and *swore* are the regular pasts of *heave* and *swear*, the O. E. forms having been

root-inf. *hebban*; past, sing. *hóf*, pl. *hófon*; p.p. *hafen*;  
 " *swerian*; " *swór*, " *swóron*; " *swaren*.

But the *o*-sound of the past of *heave* has found its way into the p.p.; and, by analogy with the verbs above, *swear* had a past *sware*, now obsolete, except in the higher and the solemn style.

Wear, originally a New verb : thus,

root-infin. *werian* ; past *werede* and *wered* ; p.p. *wered* and *werede* ; developed, on the same analogy, the pasts *ware* and *wore* and the p.p. *worn*, on entering the Old conjugation about the Mid. E. period.

In *clove* from *cleave*, "to split," the *o* is due to the vowel either of the past plural or of the participle : thus,

root-infin. *cleófan* ; past, sing. *cleáf*, pl. *clufon* ; p.p. *clofen*.

*Bid* has mixed its forms with those of *bide* : thus,

root-infin. *biddan* ; past, sing. *bæd* (*bade*), pl. *bædon* ; p.p. *beden* ;

root-infin. *bidan* ; past, sing. *bád*, pl. *bidon* (*bid*) ; p.p. *biden* (*bidden*) ; *bade* being thus from the proper singular, *bid* from the past pl. of *bidan*, "to bide," and *bidden* from the p.p. of the same verb.

In Old English, *eat* was conjugated thus :

root-infin. *etan* ; past, sing. *æt*, pl. *æton* (*ate*) ; p.p. *eten*.

The long e-sound of the Mod. E. pres. *eat* and the p.p. *eaten* was thus short in Old English, and the short e-sound of the past *eat* is irregular.

*Sat*, the past of *sit*, has displaced the older p.p. *sitten* and *sit* : thus,

root-infin. *sittan* ; past, sing. *sæt*, pl. *sæton* ; p.p. *seten* (later *sitten*).

*Saw* is from the plural of the past : thus,

root-infin. *seohan* or *seón* ; past, sing. *sedh*, pl. *sáwon* ; p.p. *ségen* or *sén*.

The other verbs of the paragraphs are regular.

67. In the same manner as

take, took, taken,

are conjugated shake and forsake.

And

draw, drew, drawn ;

slay, slew, slain ;

have a right to be put in the same class with them ; also *stand*, though it now forms its participle like its past, *stood*.

*Wake* and *awoke* either follow the New conjugation throughout, or make the pasts *woke* and *awoke*. *Stave*, in like manner, sometimes forms the past *stove* ; and of *wax*, the participle *waxen*, instead of *waxed*, is sometimes met with.

68. In *take*, *shake*, *forsake*, *stand*, *wake*, and *awake*, the vowel sound for both numbers of the past was *o* : thus, for instance,

root-infin. *tacan* ; past, sing. *tóc*, pl. *tócon* ; p.p. *tacen* ;

and consequently their pasts are regular ; but the past *stood* has driven out the older p.p. *stonden* (O. E. *standen*), and *wake* and *awake* have dropped the old p.p. *wacen*.

Draw and slay, which in Old English had pasts like those above; thus,

root-infin. *dragan*; past, sing. *dróg*, pl. *drógon*; p.p. *dragen*;  
 “ *slahan* or *sleán*; “ *slóh*, “ *slógon*; “ *slagen*;

have formed their modern pasts by analogy with *blew*, *flew*, etc.

Stave seems to be a modern derivative from *stave* or *staff*, and belongs to both conjugations. Its New forms were more common before the present century.

Wax, originally a verb of the Old conjugation: thus, in Middle English,

root-infin. *waxen* or *wexen*; past *wox* or *wex*; p.p. *woxen*, *waxen*, *wexen*;  
 has gone over partially to the New conjugation.

69. In the same manner as

ride, rode, ridden;

rise, rose, risen;

are conjugated also *stride*, *smite*, *write*, *drive*, *strive*, *shrive*, and *thrive*; but the last two are also of the New conjugation.

Shine and abide, which should belong to the same class, now form the participle like the past: namely, *shone* and *abode*; and *shine* is sometimes of the New conjugation.

70. The verbs *chide*, *bite*, *hide* (formerly of the New conjugation), *slide* are conjugated thus:

bite, bit, bitten or bit.

71. In *ride*, *rise*, *stride*, *smite*, *write*, *drive*, *thrive*, *shine*, *abide*, *bite*, *chide*, *slide*, the pasts, as in *ride*,

root-infin. *ridan*; past, sing. *rād*, pl. *ridon*; p.p. *riden*;

derive their *o* from the past sing., and those in *i* from the past plural; but in *abide* and *shine*, the pasts have taken the place of the Old perfect participles *abiden* and *scinen*. All these verbs, except the last three, have derived their pasts from the singular. This is probably due to the fact that their Old participles either became obsolete, or were retained in full with their suffix *-en*; so that there was not a constant resemblance between the participle and the past, to lead to unification of form. In *bite*, *chide*, and *slide*, the pasts seem to have been determined (as in the case of many of the verbs in 64 and 65) by the participles, common short forms of which were, and are, *bit*, *chid*, and *slid*.

Strive is a Romanic word from the O. F. *estriver* (itself, however, from a Teutonic noun), and, from its first introduction into the language, was inflected according to both conjugations.

Hide is sometimes regarded as having contracted forms belonging to the New conjugation. But from the Mid. E. period it has taken the form *hidden* also as its p.p., and most closely resembles *chide*, *slide*, etc.

72. The verb

choose, chose, chosen,

is a specimen of a class that has become almost extinct.

With it we may put

freeze, froze, frozen;                    seethe, sod, sodden;

but **seethe** is of rare use, and more usually follows the New conjugation. **Shoot, shot, shot** (older **shotten**), originally belonged to this class.

73. In these verbs, the vowel of the past may be regarded as coming from the vowel either of the past plural or of the participle: thus,

root-infin. *ceós an*; past, sing. *ceás*, pl. *curon*; p.p. *coren* ("chosen").

As this verb shows, the O. E. had *s* for *r* (IV. 43. b) (a common interchange in the Teutonic languages, known as RHOTACISM); and **freeze** has still, in poetry, **frore** and (less usually) **froren**, relics of its older form: thus,

root-infin. *freósan*; past, sing. *freás*, pl. *fruron*; p.p. *froren*.

74. The verbs **blow, grow, know; throw** are conjugated thus:

**grow, grew, grown.**

And we may class with them

**fly, flew, flown.**

**Strow or strew, show** (originally New), and **sow** are throughout of the New conjugation, or may make the participles **strown** or **strewn, shown, and sown**. **Crow** is of the New conjugation, or may make the past **crew**.

75. The three verbs

**fall, fell, fallen,**

and

**hold, held, holden** (rare) or **held, and beat, beat, beaten,**

really form one class together, however unlike they may seem.

76. Except **strew, show, and fly** (originally of the same class as the verbs in 72), the verbs in 74 and 75 had, in Old English, for both numbers of the past *é* or *eó*: thus, for example,

root-infin. *bláwan*; past, sing. *bleów*, pl. *bleówon*; p.p. *bláwen*;  
" *feallan*; " *feóll*; " *feóllon*; " *feallen*.

In some, as we have seen, Old forms have been driven out by New ones.

**Strew and show**, originally New, have by analogy with **blow, grow, etc.**, developed Old participles.

So far as concerns its present form, **beat** might be placed in 65.

77. We may class together

**dig, dug, dug** (or by the New conjugation);  
**stick, stuck, stuck;**

strike, struck, struck (or stricken);

hang, hung, hung (also *hanged*, *hanged* in a technical sense).

78. Dig was originally New, having past *digged*, with p.p. *digged*. The Old form *dug* appeared about the fourteenth century, but did not become common till the eighteenth. *Stick*, too, was originally New, the Old forms appearing in the sixteenth century.

Strike has followed the analogy of the u-pasts in 61 (having even an Old form *strucken*), but was originally conjugated thus :

root-infin. *strican*; past, sing. *strác*, pl. *stricon*; p.p. *stricen*.

Hang had for a time a past *heng*, which in the sixteenth century gave way to *hung*, formed on the same analogy as *struck*. It was thus conjugated in Old English :

root-infin. *hangan* or *hón*; past, sing. *héng*, pl. *héngon*; pp. *hangen*.

The New verb comes from the O. E. derivative, conjugated thus :

root-infin. *hangian*; past *hangode*; pp. *hangod*.

## 2.—Unclassifiable Verbs.

79. We have finally to note a few unclassifiable verbs: namely,

come, came, come; go, went, gone; do, did, done.

*Went* is properly the past of *wend* (as *sent* is of *send*), which now, as a separate verb, has *wended*. *Did*, of all our pasts, preserves the plainest relics of the reduplication (that is, the doubling of the root [III. 29]), which formerly made all our Old pasts.

*Wit*, with its present *wot* and past *wist* (it has no participle), is now nearly out of use. The infinitive *to wit*, "namely," belongs to legal phraseology. *Quoth* is a relic (first and third persons singular past) of a verb formerly much used, but now nearly obsolete.

80. *Come* resembles the a-pasts in 64-65, having been thus conjugated :

root-infin. *cuman*; past, sing. *cam*, pl. *cámon*; pp. *cumen*.

*Go* has always supplied its past from another stem, having in Old English for this tense *geóng*, or, more commonly, *eode*, which in Early and Middle English became *yode*. This form was given up in the fifteenth century for *wende*, the modern *went*.

*Do*, as conjugated in Old English, differs but slightly from the modern verb. At first a notional verb, it is now both notional and relational.

*Wit*, which is really of the same conjugation as the o-past verbs in 69-70, had the following forms :

### PRESENT.

Sing. 1, *wát*, "wot"; 2, *wást*; 3, *wát*; pl. 1, 2, 3, *witon*.



## PAST.

Sing. 1, *wiste*, "wist"; 2, *wistest*; 3, *wiste*; pl. 1, 2, 3, *wiston*.

*Wist* affords a curious example of the effect of mistaken analogy (IV. 46. a). The O. E. *gewis*, "certain," became in Early and Middle English *ywis* and *iwis*, "certainly"; and in the sixteenth century *iwis* was often written *Iwis*, a form which gave rise to the notion that *I* was the pronoun, and *wis* a verb, the assumed present of *wiste*. *I wis* is still found in poetry: thus, in Coleridge,

Nor do I know how long it is  
(For I have lain entranced, I wis).

To the same class as the verbs in 64 and 65 above, *quoth* is referrible. By the fourteenth century only its past was in use, the singular form *quoth* and the plural *quod* being used indifferently. The compound *bequeath* has gone over to the New conjugation.

81. *Be* is made up of parts coming from several different roots, and is so irregular as to require to be inflected here in full:

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

be,                      was,                      been.

## I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE.			SUBJUNCTIVE.	
<i>Present.</i>				
1.	am	are	be	be
2.	art	are	be (beest)	be
3.	is	are	be	be
<i>Past.</i>				
1.	was	were	were	were
2.	wast (wert)	were	wert, were	were
3.	was	were	were	were
IMPERATIVE.				
be				

## II.—DERIVED FORMS.

INFINITIVES.	PARTICIPLES.
be or to be, being	being, been

Verbs like *quoth*, of which some of the parts are wanting, and verbs like *be*, which supply some from other roots, are often called DEFECTIVE.

82. The oldest forms of *be* are:

INDICATIVE.		<i>Present.</i>		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Sing. 1.	<i>eom</i>	<i>beóm</i> ( <i>beó</i> )	<i>sí</i>		<i>heó</i>
" 2.	<i>eart</i>	<i>bist</i>	<i>sí</i>		<i>beó</i>
" 3.	<i>is</i>	<i>bith</i>	<i>sí</i>		<i>beó</i>
Pl. 1, 2, 3.	<i>sind, sindon</i>	<i>beóth</i>	<i>sín</i>		<i>beón</i>

*Past.*

Sing. 1.	<i>wæs</i>	<i>wære</i>
" 2.	<i>wære</i>	<i>wære</i>
" 3.	<i>wæs</i>	<i>wære</i>
Pl. 1, 2, 3.	<i>wæron</i>	<i>wæren</i>

Of the present forms, the only modern representatives are *am* (*com*), *art* (*ear*t), *is*; our plural, which is of Scandinavian origin, was introduced from the Northumbrian dialect (I. 26. c), but did not become established as the only form till towards the end of the Middle English period. *Be*, too, was used as an indicative singular and plural till the sixteenth century, when the present differentiation set in.

The past is from an obsolete Old verb *wesan*, "to dwell" or "to exist." *Was* is the only modern verb in common use that shows rhotacism (VIII. 73), and is further remarkable in showing vowel-variation (VI. 43. c. 3) in the plural. Properly speaking, *were* should be the second person singular, and we do find this form in poetry, where also is found *wert*, a form made, about the sixteenth century, on the analogy of *shalt* and *wilt*. *Wast* did not show itself before the Early English period. In older English a good deal of confusion exists, *is* and *was* being used indifferently as singular or plural forms for all persons.

83. The forms of the Old conjugation, as given above, are those which the best present use approves. But in all the three respects mentioned in 57-59 above—namely, dropping or retaining the *-en* of the participle; making the vowels of the past and participle like each other; and mixing forms of the New and the Old conjugations—there has been much irregularity, especially among the older writers of the language; and some of this remains, particularly in poetic use.

*3.—Participial Forms.*

84. Where a double form of the participle is in use, one ending with *-en* and the other without, the former (with *-en*) is apt to be preferred when the participle has the value of an ordinary adjective: thus,

a drunken man; a sunken ship; a hidden spring;  
a stricken heart; cloven hoofs; forgotten promises.

Some, like *drunken*, are almost limited nowadays to this adjective use. And there are a number of words in *-en*, now used only as adjectives, as the verbs of which they are really the participles form their participles at present in another manner. Such are

molten, shapen, graven, shaven, laden, riven, rotten,  
swollen, hewn, mown, sawn, bounden.

## II.—NEW CONJUGATION.

1.—*Peculiarities.*

85. The regular verbs of the New conjugation, as we have seen, form their past tense and their perfect participle alike by adding -ed or -d to the stem or root-infinitive: thus,

looked, begged, hoped, robbed, raised, wished, waited,  
united, loaded, degraded.

As these examples show, the added ending makes an additional syllable only when the stem ends with a *t*-sound or a *d*-sound, after which the -d of the ending could not otherwise be distinctly heard (IV. 43).

Moreover, the added *d* is sounded like a *t*, if the stem ends in the sounds of *k*, *p*, *th* (as in *thin*), *f*, *s*, (including *x*), and *sh* (including *ch*) (IV. 43. c. (2)): thus,

baked, piqued, hoped, betrothed, fified, paragraphed,  
laughed, chased, raced, vexed, wished, hatched.

In many words of this class, -*t* was often written instead of -*d* in the early printed literature of Modern English, and some people are beginning to write it again.

In solemn styles of reading and speaking, the -ed is sometimes sounded as a separate syllable after all stems; and then, of course, the -d has its proper *d*-sound.

86. These are the regular methods. But a great many verbs of this conjugation are more or less irregular, some (94 below) even to such a degree, and in such ways, that it might seem doubtful whether they ought not to be classed with verbs of the Old conjugation.

87. In Old English there were two forms of the past tense of the New conjugation, one adding -*de* (III. 27), with *e* as a connecting vowel (sometimes omitted), or with *o*: thus,

root-infin. *deman*, "to deem"; *nerian*, "to save"; past *dem-de*; *ner-e-de*;  
" *lufian*, "to love"; " *luf-o-de*.

Within a century and a half after the Conquest, *e* became the connecting vowel for both, the past inflection being, therefore, the dissyllable -*ede*. Final *e* then became mute, disappearing by the beginning of the Modern English period, and thus making past and perfect participle of the same form. Then also the connecting *e* began to be dropped in pronunciation with the phonetic changes and irregularities detailed below. These changes, as we shall see, sometimes in turn affected the form of the past stem.

2.—*Classes and Irregularities.*

88. In some verbs in which the **d** is pronounced like a **t**, either **-ed** or **-t** is allowed (especially in the participle) to be written: thus,

**dress, dressed or drest;      bless, blessed or blest;**  
**pass, passed or past.**

As we saw above (85), some are extending this class beyond what has for some time been usual.

89. In some verbs, after a final **n** or **l**-sound in the stem, either a regular form in **-ed** (pronounced as **d**) or an irregular in **-t** is allowed: thus,

**learn, learned or learnt;      spoil, spoiled or spoilt.**

And in like manner from **burn, pen** ("to confine"), **smell, dwell, spell, spill.**

90. In some verbs, of which the root ends in **d** after **l** or **n** or **r**, either the regular form with **-ed** added, or an irregular contracted form, with the final **-d** simply changed to **t**, is allowed: thus,

**build, builded or built;      rend, rended or rent;**  
**gird, girded or girt.**

And the same is the case with **gild, bend.**

But **lend, send, spend** have the irregular form only: thus,  
**send, sent.**

The **t** in these words stands for **-d + de**, which became **-de**, then **-te**, and finally **-t**.

91. In a yet larger number, the vowel of the stem is shortened in pronunciation, and **t** is added as ending: thus,

**feel, felt; mean, meant; keep, kept.**

This method is followed also by **deal, creep, sleep, sweep, weep.** And **kneel, leap, lean, dream** have either the regular or the irregular form: thus,

**kneel, kneeled or knelt; dream, dreamed or dreamt.**

92. A few which have the same irregularity change also a final **v** or **z**-sound of the root to **f** or **s**, respectively: thus,

**leave, left; lose, lost.**

So also with **cleave**, "split" (64), **reave** (almost obsolete), and **bereave**; but the last has either **bereaved** or **bereft**.

**Cleave**, meaning "to adhere" (and really belonging to the same class as the verbs in 69 and 70 above), is regular, but **clave** is sometimes found used as its past.

93. A few show a similar change of a final vowel, adding the sign *d*: thus,

flee, fled; say, said; shoe, shod.

**Heard** from **hear** is a case by itself, but has most likeness to these last classes.

94. A number of verbs ending in *-t* or *-d* after a long vowel shorten the vowel in the past and the participle, but take no added ending: thus,

feed, fed; shoot, shot; lead, led.

So also with **bleed**, **breed**, **speed**, **read**, **meet**; **light** forms **lighted** or **lit**.

95. The shortening of the stem vowel in 91-94 is not found in Old English; it is a development of the Early and Middle English periods. It is probably due to the assimilative influence of those Old verbs that had a short vowel in the past plural (VIII. 70).

The final *t* of the verbs in 91 and 92 is due to the same phonetic influences as in the case of those verbs in *t* which do not change the stem vowel.

**Leave**, **cleave**, and (**be-**) **reave** had in Old English an *f* in the infinitive, the change of which may be due to the same cause as that of *f* in the case of the plural of nouns (V. 36. a): thus,

root-infinitives *læfan*, *reáfean*; pasts *læfde*, *reáfode*.

The origin of the forms in 94 will be seen from the following Old English conjugations:

root-infinitives *fēdan*, *lēdan*; pasts *fēdde*, *lēdde*.

96. And a good many ending in *-t* or *-d*, generally after a short vowel, make no change at all, but form the past and the participle like the present: they are

burst	hit	put	shed	spit	thurst
cast	hurt	quit	shred	split	wet
cost	knit	rid	shut	spread	whet
cut	let	set	slit	sweat	

A few of these, however, allow also the regular form in *-ed*: namely, **knit**, **quit**, **sweat**, **wet**, **whet**. And **spit** formerly had sometimes the past **spat**.

97. The following O. E. conjugations show that the forms in 96 have been produced by the dropping of the final *-e* of the past:

root-infin. *sprædan*, to spread; past *sprædde*; p.p. *spræded*;  
 " *settan*, to sett; " *sett*; " *setted* and *set*.

Whether the full or the contracted forms shall be used where there is a choice, is a matter of usage which has varied at different times: thus, in earlier English, we find such forms as

*burstēd, castēd, hurtēd;*

and, on the other hand,

*lift* for *lifted*, *reste* for *rested*, *wette* for *wetted*, *scylde* for *shielded*.

98. A certain class, ending formerly in a *k* or a *g*-sound, have, instead of the vowel and final consonants, the sound *aught*: thus,

*beseech, besought; buy, bought; bring, brought.*

So, also, *seek, catch, teach, think: work* has either *worked* or *wrought*.

*Sell* and *tell*, which are really of the same class as *seek*, etc., have *sold* and *told*.

With these is to be classed also *fraught*, now used only as an adjective.

99. Apparently *beseech, bring, seek, teach, think, sell, and tell* change the vowel of the present to form the past. But what has really changed is the vowel of the present: originally these verbs had, between the infinitive ending and the stem, an *i*, which caused assimilation (IV. 43. c. (4)) of the long *a* or *o*-sound of the root. Thus, the root of *sell* is *sal* (seen still in *sale*); so that the O. E. *sellan* was originally *salian*, the Gothic *saljan* (the loss of the *i* causing the doubling of the *l*). The pasts of these verbs, however, contain merely the old vowel-sounds.

In Old English *buy, work, and teach* were thus conjugated:

root-infin. *bycgan* (M. E. *buggen*); past *bohte*; p.p. *boht*;

“ *wyrcean*;

“ *worhte*; “ *worht* (IV. 43. a.);

“ *tæchan*;

“ *tæhte*; “ *tæht*.

The present *buy* is, therefore, derived from the M. E. form, *y* representing *g*; *wyrcean* and present *wyrce*, having lost their suffixes, have changed to the *u*-sound, under the influence of *w* and *r* (another O. E. form is *wurthen*, “to work”); and *teach* has by analogy developed the past *taught*.

*Catch*, again, which did not appear till after the Conquest, has in the same way formed its past.

*Reach, reck, latch, and stretch* had, in Middle English, as pasts *raught, rought, laught, and straught*.

And, on the other hand, *catch, teach, tell, and beseech* had at various times in older English *catched, teached, telled, and beseeched*.

100. The three verbs, *have, make, and clothe*, are shortened by the loss of the final consonant of the stem: thus,

*had, made, clad* (or *clothed*).

*Dare* is either regular, or forms the irregular past (not participle) *durst*.



The distinction sometimes made between **dared** and **durst**, that the former means "challenged" and the latter "ventured," is not generally observed; the verb shows a disposition to go over to the New conjugation in both of its senses, **dared** being often used for **durst**, but not the latter for the former.

101. In Old English, **had** was *hæfde*; **made**, *macode*; and **clad**, *clathode*. Since the period of Early English, the contracted forms from **clothe** have been used as well as the fuller forms.

**Dare**, with past **durst**, is really an Old verb of the same class as the verbs in 62 above: thus,

root-infin. *durran*; pres. sing. *dear*; past sing. *dorste*, pl. *dorston*.

The present is in origin a past, and should, therefore, like **may**, **can**, **shall**, and **will**, have no inflection in the third person singular.

### 3.—*Irregularities of Inflection.*

102. The principal parts being as above stated, the tense-inflection is almost always regular.

But **have** is irregular in the present singular, forming

**I have**, thou **hast** (=havest), he **has** (=haves).

**Need** has, in the third person singular present, either **needs** or **need**; and its irregular past **durst** does not take **-st** in the second person singular.

There has been, and still is, a good deal of irregularity in the use of **need** and **needs**. Modern English seems to prefer the uninflected form when the verb is followed by the infinitive without **to** (usually, however, with **not**): thus,

**He need not go**; **He need go**;

but the inflected form in other cases: thus,

**He needs to go**; **He needs more courage**;

the meaning of **need**, used thus, being weaker than that of **needs**.

**Dare**, meaning "to challenge," takes **-s**, but it is uninflected when it means "to venture": thus,

**He dares me to the fight**; **He dare not fight**.

### III.—OTHER IRREGULAR VERBS.

103. There is a small class of irregular verbs, mostly used along with infinitives of other verbs to form verb-phrases or "compound tenses," and having neither infinitives nor participles of their own. They are

**can**, **may**, **shall**, and **will**; **must** and **ought**.

104. The first four, though now having the value of presents only, are originally pasts of the Old conjugation; and hence,

like other pasts, they have the third person singular (as well as the plural persons) like the first. Thus, for example,

1. I can	We can
2. Thou canst	You (ye) can
3. He can	They can

**May** has the regular form **mayest** in the second person singular; but **shall** and **will** have **shalt** and **wilt** (like **art** and **wert**)

In many other languages we find instances of the assumption by a past of the meaning of a present. The vulgarisms **I have got to do it** in the sense of **I must do it**, and **I have got it** in the sense of **I have it**, are familiar examples in Modern English of similar irregularities.

105. These verbs have pasts, made according to the New conjugation, but irregular: namely,

could, might, should, and would.

They are inflected regularly, taking **-est** or **-st** in the second person singular.

In older English, these forms were often uninflected when used conditionally; and some grammarians maintain that this is even now proper.

106. The following are the O. E. forms of these verbs:

a. *cunnan*, "to know."

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>can, can</i>	<i>cūthe, could</i>
2.	<i>cunne, canst</i>	<i>cuthest</i>
3.	<i>can</i>	<i>cuthe</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>cunnon</i>	<i>cuthon</i>

In Early and Middle English, we find *couth* and *coude*, the latter becoming the Modern English form, which in the sixteenth century inserted an *l* on a false analogy with **would** and **should** (IV. 46. b). Our adjective and noun **cunning** are derivatives from the imperfect part. of the M. E. *cunnen*, "to know," which itself survives in the modern **to con**; and the O. E. perfect part. (*ge*) *cūthe* has given our adjective **uncouth**, which in older English meant "unknown," "ignorant."

b. *magan*, "to have strength or power."

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>mæg, may</i>	<i>meahte, mihte, might</i>
2.	<i>meaht, miht</i>	<i>meaghtest, mihtest</i>
3.	<i>mæg</i>	<i>meahte, mihte</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>mágon</i>	<i>meahton, mihton</i>

Not until the fifteenth century did **mayest** supersede **miht** in the second person singular.

c. *sculan*, "to owe," or "to be under obligation.

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>sceal, shall</i>	<i>sceolde, should</i>
2.	<i>scealt</i>	<i>sceoldest</i>
3.	<i>sceal</i>	<i>sceolde</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>sculon</i>	<i>sceoldon</i>

d. *willan*, "to will," or "to choose."

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>wille, will</i>	<i>wolde, would</i>
2.	<i>wilt</i>	<i>woldest</i>
3.	<i>wille</i>	<i>wolde</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>willath</i>	<i>woldon</i>

This verb is originally a past subjunctive which substituted for some of its proper forms those of the indicative. Besides the forms in *i*, we find forms in *o* in Early and Middle English until the fifteenth century, the modern *wont* being thus a contraction for *wol not*, which, indeed, was sometimes written *wonot*.

107. **Must** and **ought** are originally pasts of the New conjugation (**ought** from **owe**), though now used chiefly as presents; they have no corresponding pasts. **Ought** forms **oughtest** in the second person singular; **must** is invariable: we say both **thou must** and **he must**. The Old present of **must**, namely, **mote**, is limited to a few phrases, or to imitation of the old style:

## 108. The following are the O. E. forms of these verbs:

a. *mótan*, "to be allowed."

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>mót, mote</i>	<i>móste, must</i>
2.	<i>móst</i>	<i>móstest</i>
3.	<i>mót</i>	<i>móste</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>móton</i>	<i>móston</i>

In Modern English, as is stated above, the present **mote** has practically gone out of use, the New past **must** being used instead. For the past of **must** in its strong sense (VIII. 137), we now use **was obliged**.

b. *ágan*, "to own."

Sing.	Present.	Past.
1.	<i>áh, own (or owe)</i>	<i>áhte, ought</i>
2.	<i>áhst, áhst</i>	<i>áhtest</i>
3.	<i>áh</i>	<i>áhte</i>
Plural 1, 2, 3.	<i>ágon</i>	<i>áhton</i>

In Early English, the present forms of **ought** were in use, being gradually superseded by the past. From *ágan* comes our infinitive **owe**, which had at first **ought** as a past: thus, in Shakespeare, we find,

He said you **ought** (i.e. "owed") him a thousand pounds.

After a time *owe* developed the New past *owed*, *ought* obtaining by differentiation its present meaning.

*Ought* and *must* are now used as pasts in indirect narration only: thus,  
He told me that I *ought* to (or *must*) do it.

109. As we have seen, the auxiliaries *can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, and *ought*, had each at one time so definite a notional meaning that their complementary infinitives were evidently direct objects, except in the case of *may*, which was probably followed by an adverbial case: thus, I *may go* would originally be equivalent to I *am able* at going.

## COMPOUND VERBAL FORMS: VERB PHRASES.

### I.—Emphatic Verb-Phrases.

110. There are other ways of expressing nearly the same difference of time as that expressed by the present *I love* or *I give*, and the past *I loved* and *I gave*. Instead, for example, of

*I give*    and    *I gave*,

we may say

*I do give*    and    *I did give*.

The difference between the two expressions is usually that *I do give*, for example, is a more *emphatic* or positive assertion than *I give*. But, in asking a question, it has come to be usual in our language to say, without intending emphasis,

*Do I give?*    and    *Did I give?*

instead of

*Give I?*    and    *Gave I?*

And we rarely say nowadays

*I give not,*    and    *I gave not;*

but rather

*I do not give,*    and    *I did not give*.

Such forms as *Give I?* and *I give not* were in use in older English, and are still found in poetry and the higher style.

In such phrases as *I do give*, the *give* is (as older English and the other related languages show) the infinitive without *to*. The *do* and the *did*, which are the present and the past of *do*, are the real verbs in the phrases *I do give* and *I did give*; and the infinitive *give* is their object: *I do give*, for example, strictly means "*I do or perform an act of giving*"; but this meaning has become so weakened that we do not now feel it. We might properly enough always analyze and parse the phrase, and any similar one, in this manner. But the

phrase is, as we have seen, a kind of substitute for the present tense of the verb *give*, and the *do* is used along with the infinitive of the verb to *help* in making it; and such substitutes are formed from all the verbs in the language, and are used in making sentences just as simple verbal tenses are used. Accordingly, we find it convenient not to analyze them, but to treat them as simple tenses. We call the phrases

**I do give and I did give**

the EMPHATIC present and past of the verb *give*. And the verb *do*, which is put along with the infinitive *give* to help in making the emphatic tenses, we call an AUXILIARY or "helping" verb.

111. In Early English, *do* generally meant "to cause," or "to make," being followed in this sense by an infinitive: thus,

*They have done her understonde* (i.e. "made her understand").

Even in Old English, we find instances of the auxiliary use; but this, though more common in the thirteenth century, did not become established till the beginning of the fifteenth. In the sixteenth century, *do*, as an auxiliary, was often used in declarative sentences, even when no emphasis was intended: thus,

The serpent beguiled me, and I did eat;

and in Elizabethan literature we often find such sentences as

I not doubt;      It not appears to me;      Revolt our subjects?  
Gives not the hawthorn bush a sweeter shade?

During the seventeenth century, the modern idiom became firmly established.

## II.—Progressive Verb-Phrases.

112. We form yet another kind of present and past, namely,

**I am giving and I was giving,**

by using the present and the past of *be* as auxiliaries, and putting along with them the imperfect participle *giving*. Here the participle has the value of a predicate adjective, modifying the subject of the auxiliary verb, just as the adjectives *generous* and *liberal* modify *I* in

**I am generous and I am liberal.**

We might always analyze the phrases in this way in describing the sentence; but, as in *I do give*, it is convenient to treat them as if they were simple tenses. And, because in them the action or state is thought of more distinctly as *continuing* or being in *progress*, we call these compound tenses the CONTINUOUS or PROGRESSIVE present and past.

## III.—Future Verb-Phrases.

113. Our simple verbal forms have a distinction of tense only for the difference of time present and time past. If we wish to speak of anything to be done in time to come, we use as auxiliaries the present tenses of the irregular verbs **shall** and **will**, putting along with them the infinitives of the verb expressing action : thus,

**I shall give,                      He will go.**

This, then, as it signifies future action or state, we call a **FUTURE** tense. In these phrases, again (as in **I do give**), the infinitive is the object of the auxiliary considered as an independent verb.

**Shall** means originally "owe, be under obligation," and **will** means "wish, resolve, determine." (VIII. 106. c. and d.) The phrases, then, originally mean

**I purpose, intend, or am determined on, giving ;**  
and

**I owe, am bound, or am obligated to, giving.**

Hence, **shall** implies some constraint affecting its subject, whereas **will** implies freedom from constraint, the subject being free to act. Out of this difference in the original meaning of these auxiliaries have grown well marked differences in their present use.

## I.—IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES OF ASSERTIVE SENTENCES.

(1) *Predictive Futures.*

114. As **I shall give** means originally "I am obliged to give," and as a man is supposed to do what he sees he must do, the expression, when weakened, came to mean simply "I am about giving"—a mere announcement of the future action. So, too, as **you shall give** means originally "You are obliged to give," **shall** is unsuitable in speaking of the future act, unless we intend to impose an obligation on the person we are speaking to : we, therefore, use **will** in a weakened sense : thus, **You will give ;** politely implying that it is the will of the person to act thus.

Hence, to *predict*, that is, to express simple futurity, in principal clauses of assertive sentences, we use **shall** for the first person, and **will** for the second and third. Examples are

**I shall not go ;    You will be too late for school ;**  
**Loiterers will certainly suffer.**

Such verb-phrases are known as **PREDICTIVE** futures.



115. In principal clauses of assertive sentences, *will* is also used :

a. In the second and third persons, to express a softened command or direction given to another : it is courteously assumed that the person spoken to or of is willing to do as he is directed. Examples are

The teachers will see that no one leaves the room;  
You will kindly remain for a minute or so.

b. In the third person, to express

(1) A habit, the notion of inclination in *will* being dropped, and the attention being directed to the habit to which the inclination leads : thus,

He will spend hours together in their company ;

and, by a sort of personification, we say

Accidents will happen.

(2) A persistent course of conduct on the part of the subject, the notion of both inclination and its resulting habit being retained : thus,

He will go there in spite of my warnings.

Sometimes in such sentences *will* is emphatic, and refers to one instance only, thus retaining its original sense of exercising the will, without reference to habit.

(3) A general statement which is really the predicted result of an experiment : thus,

Any port will answer in a storm (if you make the trial).

(4) A conclusion to which the mind has been coming as an inference from facts : thus,

This will be the son of Auchinlech.

### (2) *Promissive Futures.*

116. In principal clauses of assertive sentences, to use *will* in the first person implies the speaker's assent or promise : thus,

I will see that he does so ; I will go, never fear ;

or, when emphatic, his determination (see 122 below) : thus,

I will go ! (whatever may oppose).

To use *shall* in the second and third persons implies the speaker's promise : thus,

You shall have it ; He shall go : rely on me for that ;

or. when emphatic (see 122 below), his determination,

Thou shalt not kill ;

No candidate shall be allowed to copy at an examination.

Hence, to express the speaker's *promise* or determination, we must use *will* for the first person, and *shall* for the second and the third.

To distinguish these phrases, they are called **PROMISSIVE** futures ; and, in them, more of the original force of the auxiliaries is discernible than in the predictive futures.

117. In prophecies and proverbs, *shall* is frequently used in the second and third persons to express the certainty of an event's happening, there being, of course, no reference to the will of the subject : thus,

Thou shalt arise and have mercy on Zion ;  
He shall be blessed in all that belongs to him ;  
A false witness shall not be unpunished, and he that speaketh  
lies shall perish.

Under this head may be placed such examples as the following (found in our older writers only) :

There is not a girl in town, but let her have her will in going to  
mask, and she shall dress like a shepherdess.—ADDISON.

#### II.—IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

118. For the use of *shall* and *will* in dependent clauses, the general rules are the same as for principal clauses in assertive sentences. Thus,

a. The predictive future :

I fear that we shall be late ; I hope that you will succeed ;  
We are confident that he will like them.

b. The promissive future :

I hereby declare that I will perform, etc. ;  
We are willing that you shall have it ;  
He has decided that the race shall be rowed again.

119. In dependent clauses, *shall* is sometimes used to express possibility in the future : thus,

Any candidate who shall be detected copying, etc. ; If any change  
shall occur, let me know ; You may use it whenever it shall  
seem necessary to do so ; I will finish it though it shall take, etc. ;  
Beware lest you shall fail ; I will wait until you shall think it  
proper to go.

As, however, in such cases, futurity is expressed or implied in the principal clause, the modern idiom is to express in the dependent clause the possibility alone, using the present subjunctive, or, its equivalent, the present indicative, conditional, or potential.

120. In reporting the statement or opinion of another, *shall* may be used in the second and third persons to express mere futurity : thus, we say,

You say you shall go ; He writes me that he shall be unable to attend ;  
if we imply that the persons referred to said

I shall go ; I shall be unable to attend.

Here again, however, the modern tendency is to change to the speaker's point of view, and use **will** instead of **shall**: thus,

**You say you will go; He writes me that he will be unable to attend.**

And, of course, the future phrase with **will** is the one to use if that was the auxiliary used in the direct narration.

### III.—IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

121. In interrogative sentences, we use **shall** or **will**, in the second and third persons, according as the one or the other is to be used in reply. Thus, we say,

**Shall you (or he) go? Shall the motion pass?**

if we expect the reply **I (or He) shall (or shall not) go**, and so on; but

**Will you go? Will he go? Will there be room for me?**

if we expect the reply to contain **will** as the verb-auxiliary.

Only **shall**, however, can be used in the first person, for we do not ask others about our own will; and this **shall** may be answered by **shall** or **will**, according as we ask about the mere futurity of an act or state or its futurity dependent on the constraint of the subject (see 114 above): thus,

**Shall I see you if I go? You shall (or will) see me, etc.**

### IV.—INDEPENDENT USES OF **SHALL** AND **WILL**.

122. Not all the combinations of **shall** and **will** with an infinitive are properly to be regarded as verb-phrases. When **will** emphatically expresses "determination," and **shall**, "obligation," they have as independent a meaning and character as other verbs which have an infinitive dependent upon them. In such uses, the notion of determination or obligation may be represented in the logical predicate, and that of the following infinitive in the logical subject, of an equivalent sentence: thus, **will** and **shall** are independent in

**I will go and You shall go,**

if the meanings are

**Going is determined on by me and Going is an obligation on you.**

There are, however, various shades of meaning between the purely auxiliary, and the purely independent, uses of these verbs.

123. Strictly speaking, we can have only a present certainty that an event will take place. This certainty synthetic languages conveniently express by an inflectional change; others, as English, more correctly express it by the use of words which originally implied present conviction in reference to the future. Thus, in English **shall** originally expresses

the speaker's present conviction of obligation, and will expresses his present conviction of the will employed, both obligation and will affecting the future. These words, at first strongly notional, now fluctuate between a stronger notional sense and the more relational expression of futurity (II. 42 and 43).

124. Even in the synthetic stage of our language, there was no inflected future, the present, as now also sometimes (VIII. 18. b), being used instead : thus,

*He eow fullath*, "He shall baptize (lit. baptizeth) you."

But, even in Old English, the necessity was felt for greater precision than was thus afforded, and *sceal*, "I am obliged," and *wille*, "I have a mind to," were joined to infinitives to express the future, with, however, a stronger notional meaning than they now generally possess. In the Northumbrian dialect, *sceal* and *wille* often expressed simple futurity ; in Early and Middle English, this became common, the mind gradually dwelling more and more on the futurity implied, and less on the notional meaning also conveyed ; and, in the seventeenth century, the modern distinction between *shall* and *will* was firmly established in England. In the Elizabethan period, however, the distinction was not strictly observed : thus, in Shakespeare, we find *shall* for *will* in

*K. Henry*—Commend me to the princes in the tower ;  
*Glos.*—We shall, my liege.

In Canada, owing to the admixture of races, and in Scotland and Ireland, this distinction is not in general use, even amongst the educated classes. It has, however, the sanction of the best usage, and increases our power of definite expression.

#### IV.—Conditional Verb-Phrases.

125. *Should* and *would*, the pasts of *shall* and *will*, form, with the infinitive, phrases which are especially used to express a *conditional* assertion ; that is, one that depends on a condition : thus,

I should go (if I could get away) ;  
 He would give (if he had the means).

These, therefore, are called *CONDITIONAL* forms. Often, also, they are used to express the condition itself : thus,

If he should come, you would see him.

126. *Should* is used in expressing an opinion, although no uncertainty may be intended ; the indicative being felt to be too abrupt and positive : thus,

I should say that he is mistaken.

\* The assertion is, however, really a dependent one ; for some such condition as if I might venture an opinion is evidently implied. See also XIV. and XVII.

127. The difference between **should** and **would** is in general the same as that between **shall** and **will**; and the rules for the use of these verbs apply to **should** and **would** also in both principal and dependent clauses.

In the expression of a condition, **should** is used with all persons, as it expresses a possibility independent of the will of its subject: thus,

If I (or he) **should** (or thou **shouldst**) come, you  
would see him.

128. **Should** has sometimes its stronger meaning of "ought," and **would** that of "be determined": thus,

He **should** go, by all means: but he will not;  
He **would** go, I could not stop him.

And, in this case also, the notion of "obligation" may be represented as being in the logical predicate, that of the following infinitive being in the logical subject (compare VIII. 122).

Sometimes, also, in dependent clauses in narrative, **should** and **would** are mere past forms of **shall** and **will**, and imply no condition: thus, referring to the statement I **shall** (or **will**) go as past, we say

I said that I **should** (or **would**) go.

In the same way,

It is known that I **shall** (or he **will**) be there  
becomes, when regarded as past,

It was known that I **should** (or he **would**) be there.

129. Unless the meaning is clear from the context, the use of **should** and **would** in narrative as pasts of **shall** and **will** is liable to be confounded with the other uses of these words: thus, in

I said that I **should** go,

**should** may mean "ought," or may be conditional.

#### V.—Perfect and Pluperfect Verb-Phrases.

130. Yet again, by using the verb **have** as auxiliary, in its present and past tenses, **have** and **had**, and putting with them the perfect participle, **given**, **gone**, and the like, we form two other so-called tenses: namely,

I **have given**, and I **had given**.

Both these tenses show past action, like the simple past. But as **I have given** marks the act of giving especially as completed, finished, done with at present, we call it a **PERFECT** tense (*perfect* here means "complete").

And as **I had given** marks the act as already completed at some stated time in the past—thus, for example,

**I had given it away before you came—**

we call it a **PAST PERFECT**, or (what is meant for the same thing) a **PLUPERFECT** tense.

131. Of all the verb-phrases used as compound tenses, those with **have** for their auxiliary are farthest removed from their original meaning, and, therefore, hardest to analyze and explain. They began to be made from transitive verbs, followed by an object, which object was modified by the participle in the way of an objective predicate: for example,

**I have my head lifted;**

**I have the letter written.**

Then such phrases, which literally expressed only the result of a past action, came to be understood as expressions for the action itself, getting the same meaning as our

**I have lifted my head;**

**I have written the letter.**

And then, **have** coming to seem a mere auxiliary of past time, as **shall** and **will** are of future, all verbs, of every kind, finally made their past tenses with it (IV. 47). For a long time, however, **am** and **was** continued to be used instead as auxiliaries for some of the intransitive verbs (as still used, for example, in German and French); and remains of this use are to be seen in occasional phrases like

**He is come, They are arrived, He was gone before you rode up.**

The use of both the perfect and the pluperfect goes back to the earliest period of our language; but the simple past might then be substituted for these tenses, as is now often the case amongst the uneducated.

#### VI.—The Nature of Future, Conditional, Perfect, and Pluperfect Verb-Phrases.

132. The perfect, pluperfect, and future verb-phrases are analogous in use with the tenses of the simple verb: they add, as we have seen, principally a difference of time to the verbal root. But the conditional has more the character of a mood: its difference from the future resembles that of the subjunctive from the indicative: thus,

**I shall (or He will) be footsore**

asserts the speaker's certainty that something will take place in the future, whereas

**I should (or He would) be footsore (if I [or he] walked so far),**



is a supposed case—a mere mental conception—as to something which may take place in the future (VIII. 21). Indeed, the conditional is often used when we might also use the past subjunctive: thus, instead of

If I should be so unlucky;    Though he should slay me;  
   That would certainly be better;

we may also say

If I were so unlucky;                    Though he slew me;  
   That were certainly better.

But, even in this use, *would* and *should* retain a trace of their original meaning, thus differing from the subjunctive which expresses the uncertainty merely.

133. The fact that a conception is in general something that can be realized only in the future, explains the connection that exists between the subjunctive and conditional and the future. See also 119 above.

134. When it is desirable to impart to a statement a much more imaginary character than arises from the expression of present certainty in regard to the future, we use the past auxiliary forms, removing, as it were, the conception further from us, and giving the imagination more room to play: thus,

I shall go

expresses the speaker's present certainty in regard to a future act;

If it prove (pres. subjunct. ; or shall prove, fut.) so, I shall go, expresses a supposed case, which, however, the use of the future indicative shall go implies, is likely to take place; but

If it proved (past subjunct., or should prove, cond.) so, I should go, expresses a purely imaginary case, and implies no judgment as to the chances of its happening. The effect of the past is the same in the case of other modal verb-phrases: thus,

He will (would) do so, if he wishes (wished);  
You can (could) do so, if you wish (wished);  
I may (might) do so, if I wish (wished).

#### VII.—Potential and Obligative Modal Verb-Phrases.

135. Other modal verb-phrases are made with the auxiliary verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought*. Thus, the phrases

I may give,    I can give,

as they express especially the possibility of the action, are called **POTENTIAL** verb-phrases (*potential* means "having power"), and

I might give,    I could give,

which are a kind of conditional, of a different value from the

other (VIII. 134), are called **POTENTIAL PASTS**, being formed with the past instead of the present tense of the same auxiliaries.

With **must** and **ought (to)**, we make phrases which may be called **OBLIGATIVE** (*obligative* means implying "obligation"): thus,

**I must give,      I ought to give.**

136. In meaning, these auxiliaries differ as follows:

In **I may give**, **may** expresses possibility in the most general way; whereas, in **I can give**, **can** expresses a particular form of possibility, that conceived as depending on the exercise of the power of the subject. In **I must give**, **must** expresses necessity—obligation which the subject is forced to fulfil; whereas, in **I ought to give**, **ought** expresses duty—obligation which the subject may or may not fulfil.

137. These auxiliaries are used with various shades of the original meaning: thus, **I may go** may mean that I am permitted to go, or that there is a possibility of my going; **I can go** means that I am able to go; but, in **You can take it or leave it**, the meaning of **can** is weakened, approaching nearly to that of **may**; and **You must go to prison** means that you are obliged to go; **You must be mistaken**, that there is no doubt that you are mistaken; and **You must not come**, that you are not allowed to come.

#### VIII.—Dependent and Independent Uses of Modal Auxiliaries.

138. But not all the combinations of **may**, **can**, **must**, and **ought** with an infinitive are properly to be regarded as modal verb-phrases. Sometimes these verbs, like **shall** and **will** and **should** and **would**, have as independent a meaning and character as other verbs which have an infinitive dependent upon them.

If the sentences in which they are used may be taken simply as the answers to the questions:

**Is so and so a possibility or an obligation?**

they are used independently. In all other cases they are modal auxiliaries.

139. **May**, in any sense, expresses possibility, but it may do so in two quite different ways: thus,

a. In

**It may rain to-morrow,**

the meaning may simply be that the falling of rain to-morrow is a possibility, in which case the falling of rain is thought of independently of anything else: the sentence merely answers the question:

**Is raining to-morrow a possibility?**

So, too, with the stronger meaning of *may* : thus,

*I may (i.e. "am at liberty to") go home;*

in which case the meaning is that going home is permitted to me.

It is thus evident that the notion of possibility in these sentences may be represented in the logical predicate of an equivalent categorical sentence, that of the following infinitive being in the logical subject (compare 122 and 128 above): thus,

*Raining to-morrow is a possibility; Going home is permitted to me.*

Used thus, *may* has its independent meaning.

b. But in

*I am come that ye may have life,*

*may* expresses the possibility of my having life, not, as in the case of the independent use of *may*, as the solution of a doubt whether my having life is possible, but as the result contemplated in my coming.

In this case, the notion of possibility may be represented in the logical subject of an equivalent categorical sentence : thus,

*Your having life (conceived as a possibility) is the purpose of my coming.*

Used thus, *may* has its dependent, modifying meaning, forming a modal verb-phrase with the infinitive that follows it.

Other examples of the modal use of *may* are

*If he come, I may go;      May you be happy!*

which are equivalent to

*My going (conceived as a possibility) depends on his coming;*

*Your being happy (conceived as a possibility) is a thing that I wish.*

140. In the same manner, *can*, *must*, and *ought* have two distinct uses. Thus,

a. When -

*I can go,      I must go,      I ought to go,*

are logically equivalent to

*Going is in my power, or is a necessity or duty for me,*

we have, as in 139. a. above, the independent use of these auxiliaries.

b. When, however, we say

*You can take it if you like;*

*You must work in order to avoid starvation;*

*If you want to avoid trouble, you ought to pay your debts;*

there is still, as in the case of *may*, 139. b., an assertion that something is in my power, or is a necessity or a duty incumbent upon me; but it is viewed in its dependence on something else.

And, as in 139. b. above, the possibility or the necessity may be represented in the logical subject of an equivalent categorical sentence : thus,

*Your taking it (conceived as a possibility) depends on your wish;*

*Your working (conceived as a necessity) is the condition on which depends your avoiding starvation;*

Your paying your debts (conceived as a duty) is the condition on which depends the gratification of your desire to avoid trouble.

This is the dependent or modal use of these auxiliaries.

Other examples of the modal use of *can*, *must*, and *ought*, are

No one knows what can have caused it ;

You are growing thin : you must (or ought to) eat more ;

which are equivalent to

What caused it (conceived as a possibility) is known by no one ;

Your eating more (conceived as a necessity or a duty) is called for owing to the fact that you are growing thin.

In such a sentence as

I must lay claim to this book,

the independence or dependence of *must* depends on whether the sentence is to be regarded as the answer (VIII. 138) to

Must I lay claim to this book? or What must I lay claim to?

And, in such a sentence as

The man who may (can, must, or ought to) do this, is here,

the possibility or necessity is, of course, already in the logical subject.

141. The same principle holds good in the case of the conditional mood also : thus, since we have modal verb-phrases in both clauses,

If he should come, you would see him,

is equivalent to

His coming (conceived as a possibility) is the condition on which depends your seeing him ;

and

Your seeing him (conceived as a possibility) depends upon his coming.

See also VIII. 24.

142. Hence, generally,

a. *When the action or the state expressed by the infinitive following should, would, may, can, must, or ought, being conceived apart from modality, is the logical subject, these verbs are used independently.*

b. *When the possibility or the necessity expressed by these verbs is substantially in the logical subject, they are used dependently, that is, as modal auxiliaries.*

#### IX.—Other Perfect and Pluperfect Verb-Phrases.

143. As with the present and past of *have*, we made, adding the perfect participle of the verb, a perfect and a pluperfect tense, so, with the future, the conditional, and so on, of *have*, we form a future perfect, a conditional perfect, and so on, through the whole series of verb-phrases : thus,

I shall or will have given ;

I should or would have given ;

I may or can have given, and so on.

144. Of the tense verb-phrases, the future perfect was the last to be formed. It did ~~not~~ become established till the Modern English period, and even now the notion it expresses may be variously represented. Thus, of the following (all of which convey practically the same thought):

Before the cock crow twice, thou deniest me thrice;  
 Before the cock crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice;  
 Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt deny me thrice;  
 Before the cock shall crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice;  
 Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice;  
 Before the cock shall have crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice;

the first is the only one used in Old English (VIII. 17); the second and the third are used in Early English; the fourth and the fifth, in Middle English; the last, in Modern English, which, however, may use all the others.

#### X.—Imperative Verb-Phrases.

145. Besides the optative subjunctive (VIII. 27), another mode of expression, made with a kind of imperative auxiliary, **let**, is much used in order to intimate a wish or direction in the third person, and even in the first: thus,

**Let me (or us) give; Let him (her, it, or them) give;**  
**Let the messenger set out at once.**

This combination of **let** with an infinitive is so common that it seems to us to supply the place of the missing first and third persons of the imperative mood; and it is properly to be regarded and described as an IMPERATIVE VERB-PHRASE.

Here **let** is plainly a real imperative, and the **give** an infinitive, to which the intervening noun or pronoun stands in the relation of subject, just as in such combinations as **Make him go**, **See him give**, and the like. **Let him give** literally means "Allow him to give," or "Cause him to give"; but, in the imperative verb-phrase, the original meaning of the **let** has become weakened.

#### XI.—Other Progressive and Emphatic Verb-Phrases.

146. Once more, we may make continuous or progressive forms for the entire series of verb-phrases, by putting in each case the corresponding tense of **be** before the imperfect participle: thus,

**I have been giving; I had been giving;**  
**I shall be giving; I might be giving;**  
**I must or ought to have been giving;**

and so on with the rest.

147. But the emphatic forms, with **do** as auxiliary, are made only from the present and the past, and not from any of the compound tenses (except the phrasal imperative), whether in assertion, or in question and negation. For example, we are allowed to say either

**I do have or I have, Does he have? or Has he?**

**They did not have or They had not,**

when **have** is an independent verb; but we say only

**I have given, Has he given? They had not given,**

when it is an auxiliary. And so with all the other auxiliaries except **let**, of which, however, there are other possible, but unused, combinations besides those in the scheme (VIII. 150).

The emphatic form of **be** (except in the emphatic imperative-phrase, *e. g.* **Do be still [XVI.]**), **will**, **shall**, **may**, **can**, **must**, and **ought**, is not admitted, even in the independent uses of these verbs. To make such forms emphatic, we lay the stress of the voice upon them when we are speaking, or italicize them in print, underline them in writing, or arrange the context so as to show our intention.

### **XII.—Infinitive and Participial Phrases.**

148. The infinitives and the participles bear their share in this expansion of the simple forms of the verb into a scheme of verb-phrases. Thus, besides the simple infinitive

**give or to give,**

we have the PERFECT INFINITIVE,

**have given or to have given;**

and both of these have their progressive forms: namely,

**be giving or to be giving;**

**have been giving or to have been giving.**

Besides the imperfect participle, **giving**, we have the PERFECT ACTIVE PARTICIPLE,

**having given,**

with its corresponding progressive form,

**having been giving;**

and, as elsewhere, the same forms serve the uses of the gerund also.

Finally, the perfect participle, **given**, has its progressive form,

**being given;**



and from it is also made a PERFECT PASSIVE PARTICIPLE (without progressive form),

**having been given,**

which is a part, however, of the passive conjugation (VIII. 157).

149. The perfect infinitive appeared first towards the end of the Early English period, and was frequently used during the Middle English, and the first part of the Modern English, period. Such an expression as

**I hoped to have seen him yesterday**

is not now considered good English; but in the Elizabethan age, and even earlier, the perfect infinitive was used more freely than at present, especially after verbs of hoping, intending, or verbs signifying that something ought to have been done, but was not—an idiom, however, which we retain in a concealed form: thus,

**I would (that is, wished to) have done it;**

**I ought (that is, owed) to have done it.**

In Modern English, the use of the perfect infinitive is confined to the expression of a completed action or state.

The compound participial forms are all of late formation. Such forms as *being going*, though legitimate, are very rare; but phrases like *being loved*, which came into use at the beginning of the sixteenth century, are now firmly established. About the close of the sixteenth century, the perfect active participle became current; later came the perfect passive participle, and still later the even now uncommon progressive form of the perfect active participle.

### XIII.—Scheme of Conjugation.

150. If we put all these forms together into one scheme, it will be as below. The original and simple forms of the verb are here put in small capitals, to distinguish them from the phrasal forms. For brevity's sake, the subjunctive of the first four tenses (formed for perfect and pluperfect with the subjunctive of the auxiliary *have*: for example, (if) *he have given*) is omitted. Only the first person singular of each tense is set down.

STEM.

G I V E.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

GIVE, GAVE, GIVEN.

*Present.*

Simple.

Emphatic.

Progressive.

GIVE

do give

am giving

*Past.*

GAVE

did give

was giving

Simple.	<i>Perfect.</i>	Progressive.
have given	have been giving	
	<i>Pluperfect.</i>	
had given	had been giving	
	<i>Future.</i>	
shall or will give	shall or will be giving	
	<i>Future Perfect.</i>	
shall or will have given	shall or will have been giving	
	<i>Conditional.</i>	
should or would give	should or would be giving	
	<i>Conditional Perfect.</i>	
should or would have given	should or would have been giving	
	<i>Potential.</i>	
may or can give	may or can be giving	
	<i>Potential Past.</i>	
might or could give	might or could be giving	
	<i>Potential Perfect.</i>	
may or can have given	may or can have been giving	
	<i>Potential Pluperfect.</i>	
might or could have given	might or could have been giving	
	<i>Obligative.</i>	
must or ought to give	must or ought to be giving	
	<i>Obligative Perfect.</i>	
must or ought to have given	must or ought to have been giving	

Simple.	<i>Imperative.</i>	Progressive.
GIVE	do give	be giving
	<i>Phrasal Imperative.</i>	
let (me, etc.) give	do let (me, etc.) give	let (me, etc.) be giving
	<i>Infinitive.</i>	
(to) GIVE		(to) be giving
	<i>Infinitive Perfect.</i>	
(to) have given		(to) have been giving

*Imperfect Participle and Gerund.*

GIVING

Simple.	<i>Perfect Active Participle and Gerund.</i>	Progressive.
<b>having given</b>		<b>having been giving</b>
	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>	
<b>GIVEN</b>		<b>being given</b>

151. It is impossible to draw any absolute line between such verb-phrases as have been set forth and named above and those yet looser and more accidental combinations into which words enter in sentences, in order to limit and define an action in still other ways, as regards time and manner. Thus, one might prefer to class as presents such verb-phrases as

I am in the act of giving;

or, as futures,

I am going to give;

I am about to give;

I am on the point of giving;

and to form a series of tense and modal combinations thus :

I was (have been, shall be, may be, etc.) in the act of giving  
(or going to give), and so on ;

and some grammarians do place such combinations in their schemes of the verb.

There is often no very marked difference between

I may or can give,

and

I am allowed to give;

I am able to give;

It is in my power to give.

Nor, again, between

I must or ought to give,

and

I am to give;

I have to give;

I am compelled to give;

It is my duty to give.

But we select, to make up a kind of complete scheme of conjugation, those phrases which are on the whole the most frequent and the most regular; those in which the real verbal form has most distinctly the character of an auxiliary or helper only; and, finally, those which most nearly correspond to the real modes and tenses of the verbs of the synthetic languages. The pupil must be careful not to confound them with the true verbal forms: they are, after all, nothing but phrases, composed of a real verbal form (the "auxiliary") and its limiting adjuncts; combinations of independent words, each of which can be parsed separately, as a member of the sentence. It is only as a matter of practical convenience, to save time and needless repetition, that we treat them as compound forms of the verb, and name and parse them in the same way as the simple forms.

#### XIV.—Passive Verb-Phrases.

152. There is one more set of verb-phrases, corresponding to the true verbal forms of many other languages, yet remaining to be described.

We called above the perfect participle also the "passive" participle, because it usually marks the thing described by it as "suffering," or "enduring," or being the object of, the action defined by the verb. Thus, a **beaten** dog is one that some one has been beating; a **loved** person is one regarded with love; a lamp is **lighted** if some one has lighted it; and so on.

153. Now, by putting this passive participle along with all the various forms, simple and compound, of the verb **be**, we make a set of verb-phrases which are usually called the **PASSIVE CONJUGATION** of the verb, because by means of them we take what is the object of any verbal form in the ordinary conjugation, and turn it into a subject, representing it as enduring or suffering the action expressed by that verbal form. Thus, to

**The dog bit him,**

the corresponding passive is

**He was bitten by the dog,**

the object **him** being turned into the subject **he**; to

**I shall see them,**

the passive is

**They will be seen by me;**

to

**You might have given me the book,**

the passive is

**The book might have been given me by you;**

and so on.

By using the passive, instead of the other, conjugation, we are able to give greater variety to our language, and to represent the enduring of an act without mentioning the agent.

154. For none of the passive tenses, except the phrasal imperative, is there an emphatic phrase made with **do**; since (as we pointed out above, 146) the auxiliary of the passive, **be** never makes an emphatic tense-phrase: we say only

**I am struck;      Am I struck?      I am not struck;**

and so on: not **Do I be struck?** etc.

But in recent English (probably since the latter part of the last century), there have been coming into common use progressive phrases for the two simplest tenses, present and past;

phrases made with the progressive instead of the simple form of the perfect or passive participle. Examples are

The house is being built;  
The book was being printed;  
The dinner was being eaten.

These are the corresponding passives to the progressive expressions

They are building the house;  
They were printing the book;  
They were eating the dinner;

just as

The house is built,                      The book was printed,  
The dinner was eaten,

correspond to

They build the house;      They printed the book;  
They ate the dinner.

These progressive forms are still regarded by some as bad English, and carefully avoided; but they are also freely used even by writers of the first class, especially in England.

155. Old English had no special inflection for the passive. Like Modern English, it used verb-phrases, consisting of the perfect participle and the substantive verbs *weorthan*, *wesan*, and *beon*, "to be": thus,

*Ic eom*, or *weorde*, *lufod*, "I am loved"; *Ic wæs*, or *wearth*, *lufod*,  
"I was loved"; *Ic eom lufod worden*, "I have been loved";  
and so on.

After a time *weorthan* dropped out of use as an auxiliary, leaving the modern *be* and *was*.

156. In the expression of the present enduring of an act, the passive verb-phrases in the following present no difficulty, because the feeling expressed is continuous:

The master is esteemed;

The pupils are loved;

but in

The house is painted;

The Indian is scalped;

the verbal phrases express something completed, not something continuous. To express the present in cases like the latter, the active conjugation, or some circumlocution, was at first used instead. Another method was to form a phrase out of *be* and the gerund in *-ing* governed by *in* or *on*: thus,

The house is *in*, or *on*, building;

from which, by the phonetic reduction, or by the omission, of the preposition, came

The house is *a-building*, or The house is *building*.

The form of the latter phrase, however, being the same as the active progressive present, was found to be unsuitable when the subject possessed life: thus, in

The boy is a-striking, or The boy is striking,

the verb-phrase could not be regarded as passive, unless this sense might be gathered from the context. This difficulty led to the formation of the new passive verb-phrases described above. To these phrases, it has been objected that, when analyzed, the combination is incongruous and meaningless: thus, taking the original sense of is,

The house is being built

is equivalent to

The house exists existing built.

But, as is is here, not notional, but relational, the objection does not fairly apply; and, even if it did, usage (I. 63) would justify the phrase, no matter what might be the original meaning of each of its parts.

#### XV.—Scheme of the Passive Conjugation.

157. The synopsis of the passive conjugation is as follows (omitting the names of the tenses):

am loved	am being loved
was loved	was being loved
have been loved	
had been loved	
shall or will be loved	
shall or will have been loved	
should or would be loved	
should or would have been loved	
may or can be loved	
may or can have been loved	
might or could be loved	
might or could have been loved	
must or ought to be loved	
must or ought to have been loved	
be loved	
let (me, etc.) be loved	do let (me, etc.) be loved
(to) be loved	
(to) have been loved	
LOVED	being loved
having been loved.	

The perf. participle, as being in itself *passive*, is the one simple form in the whole passive conjugation; and, not having be with it as passive auxiliary, is able to take it as progressive



sign. And being loved and having been loved are not only participles, but passive infinitive and gerund phrases.

#### XVI.—Active and Passive Conjugations.

158. In distinction from the passive conjugation, the other and simpler one is often called the ACTIVE; and in languages which have real verbal forms for both uses, the two sets are styled respectively the ACTIVE VOICE and the PASSIVE VOICE of the verb.

#### XVII.—Passive and Non-Passive Use of Phrases.

159. The series of forms of the auxiliary *be*, it will be noticed, that make the passive tenses, are the same as make the progressive active tenses; but they have with them the passive participle, *given* or *loved*, which marks a thing as *acted on*, instead of the active, *giving* or *loving*, which marks a thing as itself *acting*. In both cases alike, the participle has the real value of a predicate adjective, describing or modifying the subject.

160. But by no means every case where a perfect participle is combined with the verb *be* is to be regarded as a passive verb-phrase. Often the participle has the value of a predicate adjective merely, and is to be treated like any other adjective. Thus, in

He is fatigued,

fatigued has as pure an adjective use as weary in

He is weary;

also in

He was fatigued in consequence of over-exertion.

But if we say

He was fatigued by his exertions,

was fatigued is passive, because the sentence is the same as

His exertions fatigued him,

cast into a passive form.

So in

They were invited, and came,

the phrase were invited is passive, because it signifies the receiving of the invitation, the enduring of the action of inviting; but in

They came, for they were invited,

it is not passive, because invited signifies rather the condition resulting from previous action; in the active form it would be

For we had invited them.

And in like manner in other cases. According as the participle denotes actual enduring of action, or condition as the result of action, its combinations with *be* are, or are not, passive phrases.

161. Phrases of nearly the same meaning as the ordinary passive ones are made also with the verbs become and get : thus,

He became frightened ;                      He has got beaten ;

but it is not usual, although correct, to reckon them as passive ; nor has the latter the sanction of the best usage.

#### XVIII.—Verbs Forming Passive Verb-Phrases.

162. As a passive verb-phrase is one by which the object of an action expressed by a verb is turned into a subject, passives are regularly made only from transitive verbs, or those that take a direct object. But this rule is not strictly observed in English. Objects of prepositions and indirect objects of verbs are also sometimes made into subjects of corresponding passive phrases.

163. We often separate a noun or a pronoun that is really governed by a preposition from that preposition, leaving the latter after the verb, as if it were rather an adverb modifying the verb. Thus, instead of

I had already thought of that plan ;    The spoon with which he ate ;  
we say also

That plan I had already thought of ;    The spoon which he ate with.

So it comes to seem to us as if thought of and ate with were transitive verbs, and plan and which their direct objects ; and we make the corresponding passives,

That plan had been already thought of by me ;  
The spoon which was eaten with by him.

This kind of passive is very common, usually, however, with the agent omitted. Other examples are

She was talked about ;                      The journey has been resolved on ;  
The sun must not be looked at ;    The carriage shall be sent for.

Even when a verb is transitive and has a direct object, besides being followed by a preposition with its object, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the corresponding passive phrase. Thus, the sentence

We take no notice of such fellows

may be made passive either as

No notice is taken by us of such fellows,

or as

Such fellows are taken no notice of by us.

And for

They made much of him,

we have the double passive construction,

Much was made of him :                      He was made much of.

Again, in such phrases as

They gave this man to understand (so and so) ;  
I told him to leave ;

the words **this man** and **him** are strictly indirect objects. Yet we turn them sometimes (it is not allowed in the case of many verbs) into subjects of passive phrases : thus,

**This man was given to understand ; He was told by me to leave.**

#### OTHER CONJUGATIONS.

##### I.—Reflexive.

164. Such combinations as

<b>To wash oneself ;</b>	<b>Having washed oneself ;</b>
<b>I wash myself ;</b>	<b>We had washed ourselves ;</b>
<b>Thou wastest thyself ;</b>	<b>They would wash themselves ;</b>

and so on, in which the object denotes the same person or thing as the subject, are sometimes called a REFLEXIVE conjugation, or the verb in them is said to be used REFLEXIVELY, the action being made "to turn back" (*reflect* means "turn back"), upon the actor, instead of "passing over," *transitively*, to a different object. There is, however, no reason for making a special class for such phrases, as they contain only transitive verbs used in a particular way.

165. Intransitive verbs that express action are still followed occasionally in prose by a reflexive pronoun : thus,

<b>He boasted himself ;</b>	<b>You fretted yourself ;</b>
<b>I delight myself ;</b>	<b>He possessed himself of ;</b>

and often in poetry, by a simple personal pronoun used in a reflexive sense : thus,

**Here will we rest us ;**  
**They sat them down beside the stream ;**  
**Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah.**

Such combinations are very common in older English : thus, in Chancer,

**This knave goth him up full sturdily.**

166. Some transitive verbs, on the other hand, are used in a reflexive sense without the objects being expressed : thus,

**The sun seems to move (itself) ;**  
**Clouds spread (themselves) over the sky.**

And the modern tendency is to extend this class of verbs, and discard the reflexive pronoun, even when its use would be unobjectionable : thus, we often say

**Where are you going to wash ?**

when we might say

**Where are you going to wash yourself ?**

167. But, in older English, reflexive verbs were very common: thus, in the authorized version of the Bible,

They shall bethink themselves in the land;  
Charity doth not behave itself unseemly;  
O daughter of thy people, wallow thyself in ashes.

And we find also a large number of combinations in which the meaning is reflexive but the form impersonal, and which may be called IMPERSONAL REFLEXIVE: thus,

*It me forthynketh* (i.e. "repenteth"); *Me hungreth*; *Me thirsteth*;  
*Us ought*.

Of this idiom we still find, in the poetic and the solemn style, survivals in

It irks me; It lists him; Melisteth; Meseems; Methought;  
the *me* in the last two being the indirect object of the verb, and thought being the past of the O. E. *thyncan*, "to seem," a different verb from *thencan*, "to think."

168. We have, however, in English, two verbs of Scandinavian origin, *bask*, and *busk* (now used in poetry only), which are reflexive by formation. In these the suffix *sk* is for *sik*, "oneself": thus, *busk* is *búask*, "to make oneself ready," as in

Busk ye, busk ye, my bonnie, bonnie bride;  
and *bask* is *bathask*, "to bathe oneself."

### II.—Reciprocal.

169. Sometimes, also, such combinations as

They help each other (or one another),

are called the RECIPROCAL conjugation, but to them the same remarks apply as to the so-called reflexive conjugation (see VI. 68).

### III.—Middle.

170. Some transitive verbs, again, have a use different from any of those hitherto described: thus, when we say

Honey tastes sweet; The message reads well;  
That which we call a rose,  
By any other name would smell as sweet;

we use the verbs in a sense which is neither active nor passive, but which resembles each of these conjugations, the meaning of the first of these sentences being, "Honey produces the effect of sweetness when it is tasted." Verbs used in this way are sometimes said to be of the MIDDLE conjugation, it being represented that the meaning lies *between* those of the active and the passive conjugation. These, however, only make up one of the classes of verbs that may be based on meaning (VIII. 3-5).

## IV.—Impersonal.

171. Verbs used with the subject *it*, when it does not represent a notion present to the mind, but only helps to express that some action or process is going on, are called IMPERSONAL verbs, or are said to be used IMPERSONALLY, or to be of the IMPERSONAL conjugation. Examples are

<b>It rains;</b>	<b>It is fine weather;</b>
<b>It grew dark fast;</b>	<b>It will fare ill with him.</b>

172. Only those verbs are impersonal in the narrowest sense which occur in sentences without an imaginable subject, as in *It rains*, when the meaning simply is that raining is taking place. Such sentences, however, shade off into others in which the subjects, though almost definable, are for the moment wholly undefined to the speaker's mind : thus,

**It is very dark;      It is growing dark;      Is it come to this?**

From such uses of *it*, must be distinguished its use as a representative subject (VI. 26. a and b). See also 167 above.

## VERB-EQUIVALENTS.

173. Any expression to which is assignable the power of predication (VIII. 2) may become a verb : thus,

a. Other parts of speech :

**He ages fast;**  
**If, thou thou'st him some thrice, it shall not be amiss;**  
**The fire dries the room;**  
**Hence, home, ye idle creatures.**

b. Phrases. Under this head are included the various active and passive tense and modal combinations, though in these it is the real verbal form that possesses the power of predication : thus, in

**He must have been suffering,**  
**must is the word essential to predication.**

Such combinations also as are given in 162 and 163 above are to be classed as phrasal verbs. With these may be included the phrases in

**He falls in with my ideas;      The vessel heaves to;**

in which the modifying element is loosely suffixed, instead of being prefixed, as in compounds (which they resemble). (In *don*, that is, *do on*, we have a real compound formed in this way.) As, however, in *I found him out*, an object sometimes

intervenes between the modifying part and the rest of the verb-phrase. So, too, we find as noun phrases **lookers on** and **goings out** as well as **onlookers** and **outgoings**.

c. Occasionally, as in the case of nouns and adjectives (V. 75 and VII. 59. e), we find combinations with **more than**, as **much as**, etc: thus,

**He more than spoke his mind: he voted;**

**He has more than spoken his mind: he has voted;**  
**more than speak** being used as a verb.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

### §§ 1-2.

1. Discuss the merits of the following :

- a. A verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer.
- b. A verb tells what anything does, or what is done to it, or what state it is in.
- c. A verb is a word that affirms something of its nominative.
- d. A verb is a word which describes the state or condition of a noun or pronoun in relation to time.

### §§ 3-8.

2. Discuss the following classifications :

a. On the basis of meaning, two : Transitive and Intransitive ; on the basis of form, three : Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

b. On the basis of meaning, four : Active-transitive, Active-intransitive, Passive, and Neuter ; on the basis of form, four : Regular, Irregular, Defective, and Redundant.

c. Three classes : Active, Passive, and Neuter.

d. Two classes : Notional and Auxiliary.

3. Criticize the following :

a. A verb does not cease to be transitive because the object of the act is too vague to be expressed.

b. When verbs are deficient in meaning, they require complements ; when they suggest or imply more than they themselves express, they require objects of various kinds.

4. Classify the following verbs according to form, and analyze the derivatives and the compounds :

**adulterate, civilize, premeditate, disparage, disconnect, overeat, reorganize, produce, underestimate, fell, forgive, understand, retransform, overboil, encourage, benumb, strengthen.**

### §§ 9-29.

5. Write out and classify the inflections of **hate**, **be**, **run**, **bleed**, and explain the value of each inflection.

6. Define the following terms as applied to verbs :

*Person, Number, Tense, Mood, Voice, Conjugation, Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative.*

7. Explain the reason for considering **loves** an inflected form and **loving** a derived form.



8. Criticize the statement that there are two classes of forms of the verb: (1) **FINITE**, that is, those limited by number and person as well as tense; and (2) **INFINITE**, that is, those that have no limitation of number or person.

9. Discuss the merits of the following:

a. Mood denotes those forms which the verb assumes in order to express the relation of reality or existence as conceived by the speaker.

b. As moods represent the conceptions of the mind, they might be as varied and extended as these conceptions.

c. The Indicative mood is that form which is used in making unconditional assertions, in asking questions, and in making even conditional statements, if the condition be considered as really existent.

d. The Subjunctive mood expresses contingency, futurity, and generally depends upon some previous verb.

e. The tenses are forms of the verb which enable us to indicate the state of an action in either a hypothetical or a categorical sentence, and the time of an action in a categorical sentence.

### §§ 30-45.

10. Classify and explain the nature of the derived verbal forms in the following:

1. I did it upon pain of losing my life. 2. He contemplated marrying Mary. 3. Seeing is believing. 4. We do not talk for talking's sake. 5. The dreaded hour has come. 6. The gray-eyed morn smiles on the frowning night. 7. To reign is worth ambition, though in Hell; better to reign in Hell than serve in Heaven. 8. I have much work to do. 9. Be swift to hear and slow to speak. 10. Youth and pleasure meet to chase the glowing hours with flying feet. 11. Another morn shall find all eyes disposed to watch and understand my work. 12. Repeating one's statements does not prove them to be true.

11. Discuss the question as to whether the Infinitive and the Participle are to be considered moods of the verb.

### §§ 46-109.

12. Criticize the following:

a. There are four principal parts: the present, the past, the imperfect participle, and the perfect participle.

b. English verbs have two voices, the Active and the Passive.

c. The conjugation of a verb is the formation of all the inflections and combinations used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

13. Under what general heads may the causes of irregularities of English verbs be arranged? Arrange under these the irregularities in the following:

must, have, can, shall, spell, go, lose.

### § § 110-163.

14. Classify the simple and the compound tense-forms of love as

a. i. **PRESENT**; ii. **PAST**; and iii. **FUTURE**.

b. Expressing the action: i. **INCOMPLETE**; ii. **COMPLETE**; iii. **INDEFINITE**.

c. i. **PRIMARY**, or **PRINCIPAL**, that is, expressing the action as about to occur or as occurring in the present or in a time of which the present forms a part; ii. **SECONDARY**, or **HISTORICAL**, that is, occurring in past time.

## 15. Discuss the following :

a. Except in the possession of both a primary and an historical form, the so called tenses of the subjective moods have (at all events in the direct construction) no connection with the time of the predicated action ; they merely call attention to an act or a state, as simple, as completed, as progressing, or as inceptive ; and, in this respect, they are identical with the tenses of the Infinitive and the Participle.

## 16. Explain the values of the verbal forms and phrases in :

1. Princes and lords may flourish or may fade : a breath unmakes them as a breath hath made. 2. If he cannot conquer, he may properly retreat. 3. Let me die the death of the righteous. 4. Milton ! thou should'st be living at this hour. 5. You have done that you should be sorry for. 6. Having obeyed, you may now retire. 7. She was as fair as fair might be. 8. Thou shalt do no murder. 9. You must go in any event. 10. If it so happened that he might be there, you should nevertheless have been in your place. 11. He should be there to-night, judging by what I hear. 12. If he were damned and utterly reprobate, she still would love him. 13. Perhaps I did act foolishly then after all, though it did not seem so at the time. 14. I cannot do this when you look on.† 15. He must be suffering very much, because he has broken his leg.† 16. I said I should go.‡

## 17. When possible, convert the following sentences, as in VIII., 139-141 :

That it should have come to this !\* 2. I will speak, whoever he may be. 3. This is what I must look after. 4. What must I do to be rich ? 5. If you had known the virtue of the ring, you would not then have parted with the ring. 6. If you did know to whom I gave the ring, you would abate the strength of your displeasure. 7. Thou art happy, if (or though) she is absent. 8. To think that he must go ! 9. He asked who was at the door. 10. If the word had been fulfilled, as might have been, then, thought of joy ! France would have had her present Boast, and we our own Rob Roy ! 11. The chronicle were welcome that should call into the compass of distinct regard the toils and struggles of thy infancy. 12. Would that thou hadst been here ! 13. Nor should I have made mention of this dell, but for an object which you might pass by. 14. I'd sleep another hundred years, O love, for such another kiss. 15. The nightingale sang loud, as though it were the bird of day. 16. Who would be a mermaid fair ? I would be a mermaid fair. 17. You may do it in this way. 18. According as you direct, it must be done. 18. *He.* Will you go with me ? *She.* It may rain.

## 18. Distinguish the values of shall and will and should and would in the following :

*He.* I shall go to town to-morrow. Of course you will ?

*She.* No, thanks. I shall wait for better weather, if that will ever come. When shall we have three fair days together again ?

*He.* You should go. I should like to have you hear the opera. Besides, our friends would be glad to see us.

*She.* No, no ; I will not go.

*He.* [*to himself.*] But you shall go. [*to her.*] Well, remember, if you should change your mind, I shall be very happy to have your company. Do come ; you would enjoy the opera ; and you shall have the nicest possible supper afterwards. Now, won't you ? Remember I said I should go.

† Can and must are here independent, not modal.

‡ Should, if for the shall of direct narration, is, of course, modal. Cp. 134.

\* This example shows that the mood is not determined by what is incidentally implied. It is here implied that it has actually come to this ; yet that is not stated. Converted the sentence becomes :

Its having come to this [a mere mental conception] is something to excite amazement.

*She.* No ; I should not enjoy the opera ; and I wouldn't walk to the end of the drive for the best supper you will ever give me. You seem to think that I would do anything for something good to eat.

*He.* Most human creatures will. Well, if you will stay at home, you shall. But my trip would be dull without you. I should be bored to death—that is, unless, indeed, your friend Mrs. Dashatt Mann should go, as she said she thought she would.

*She.* [*to herself.*] My dear friend Mrs. Dashatt Mann ! She shall find that I am mistress of the situation. [*to him.*] John, why should you waste yourself upon those ugly, giggling girls ?

*He.* O, think what I will about that, I must take them ; and, indeed, it wouldn't be quite proper to take her alone—would it ? What should you say ?

*She.* It doesn't matter much, I should say. But it's too bad you should be bored with her nieces—and since you will have me go with you—and—after all, I should like to hear the opera—and—you shan't be going about with those cackling girls—well, John, dear, I'll go.

### THE PARSING OF VERBS.

Under the name “verb,” infinitives and participles are not included, except as they are used along with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases.

In describing a verb, we have first to see whether it is a simple verb or real verb-form, or a verb-phrase. If it is a verb-phrase, it must be taken apart into the auxiliary and the infinitive or participle which goes with this to make up the phrase. Then, if the auxiliary itself is a verb-phrase, it may, at the discretion of the teacher, be divided again—and so on, till only a simple verb-form remains.

The next question is, whether the verb is transitive or intransitive ; then, of which conjugation ; if, of the New, whether regular or irregular ; the principal parts are then given (with as much of the rest of the conjugation as the teacher shall think best). Then the mood and tense are to be stated, and the person and number ; and the tense may be inflected.

If the verb is derivative or compound, this may be pointed out.

The verb, in an assertive sentence, has but one construction, that of being the predicate of the sentence ; we need, then, only to point out what the subject nominative of the verb is, and the agreement.

Only in the case of the verb-phrase can there be any difficulty in applying the directions given above.

An example will illustrate the way in which the analysis of an intricately compound verb-phrase may be, if desired, followed up to the end. Ordinarily, however, in parsing, such analysis is unnecessary.

He must have been suffering, if his leg was broken.

Must have been suffering is a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary must have been and the imperfect participle suffering, the two composing together the so-called “progressive” form of the “obligative perfect” of the verb suffer. The auxiliary must have been, again, is also a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary must have and the perfect participle been, the two making together the so-called “obligative perfect” of the verb be. The auxiliary must have, once more, is a verb-phrase,

composed of the auxiliary *must* and the infinitive *have*, the two making together the so-called "obligative" of the verb *have*. *Must*, finally, is an irregular verb, having no other form than this, and principally used as auxiliary. *Suffer* is a regular verb, etc., etc. (transitive, but here used intransitively).

When one of the modal auxiliaries is used independently, thus, for example :

**He must have suffered after his leg was broken ;**

the independent word *must* is to be parsed like an ordinary transitive verb, and *have suffered* as an infinitive verb-phrase ; this phrase may then be taken apart similarly to the verb-phrase above.

Great care must be taken in determining whether the assertion is independent or not ; for the same conjunction may often give different meanings.

#### EXERCISES.

1. The mellow year is hasting to its close ; the little birds have almost sung their last. 2. Great Nature spoke ; observant man obeyed ; cities were formed ; societies were made. 3. By slow degre ; the whole truth came out. 4. Rarely did the wrongs of individuals come to the knowledge of the public. 5. She gave me of the tree, and I did eat. 6. Wherefore plucked ye not the tree of life ? 7. I did mark how he did shake. 8. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again. 9. Milton ! thou shouldst be living at this hour. 10. With such a prize no mortal must be blessed. 11. Who would be free, himself must strike the blow. 12. I tell you that which ye yourselves do know. 13. We did not do these things in the good old days. 14. Judges and senates have been bought for gold. 15. A lovelier flower on earth was never seen. 16. When I shall have brought them into the land, then will they turn to other gods. 17. I thought I should have seen some Hercules. 18. Without the art of printing, we should now have had no learning at all ; for books would have perished faster than they could have been transcribed. 19. They apprehended that he might have been carried off by gypsies. 20. I do entreat that we may sup together. 21. No man can do these miracles, except God be with him. 22. They shall pursue thee until thou perish. 23. She'll not tell me if she love me. 24. If thou hadst said him nay, it had been sin. 25. Hugo is gone to his lowly bed. 26. Men were grown impatient of reproof. 27. The Picts were never heard of in history after these great defeats. 28. It is laid hands upon and kissed. 29. So am I given in charge. 30. The barley was just reaped. 31. The Lord judge between thee and me. 32. Wilfrid had roused him to reply. 33. You would be taught your duty. 34. Some criminal is being tried for murder. 35. It is an impulse of humanity to he and she inanimate objects. 36. He as much as said he would go.

1. This day shall gentle his condition. 2. Disorder that hath spoiled us, friend us now. 3. Thank me no thankings, nor proud me no prouds. 4. Prince John is this morning secretly stolen away. 5. Where, then, alas ! may I complain myself ? 6. Sufficeth I am come to keep my word. 7. Where be the bending knees that flattered thee. 8. Whereof the ewe not bites. 9. Revolt our subjects ! 10. What can man's wisdom in the restoring his bereaved sense ? 11. If much you note him, you shall offend him and extend his passion. 12. Perchance I will be there as soon as you. 13. What should this mean ? 14. The venom clamors of a jealous woman poisons more deadly than a mad dog's tooth. 15. I drunk him to his bed. 16. Their means are less exhaust. 17. I have much mistook your passion. 18. The sum of this brought hither to Pentapolis yravished the regions round. 19. And I will sing that they shall hear I am not afraid.

20. We'll come dress you straight. 21. Methinks I feel this youth's perfections to creep in at mine eyes. 22. 'T were best not know myself. 23. Pleaseth you walk with me down to his house; I will discharge my load. 24. 'T were good you do so much for charity.

## ALPHABETICAL LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Below are given, in alphabetical order, the verbs of the Old conjugation and the irregular verbs of the New, with reference from each to the paragraph where its conjugation is described.

abide, 69	draw, 67	leap, 91	shed, 96	stride, 69
awake, 67	dream, 91	learn, 89	shine, 69	strike, 77
be, 81	drink, 61	leave, 92	shoe, 93	string, 61
bear, 64	drive, 69	lend, 90	shoot, 72, 94	strive, 69
beat, 75	dwell, 89	let, 96	show, 74	strow, ew, 74
begin, 61	eat, 65	lie, 65	shred, 96	swear, 64
bend, 90	fall, 75	light, 94	shrink, 61	sweat, 96
bereave, 92	feed, 94	lose, 92	shrive, 69	sweep, 91
beseech, 98	feel, 91	make, 100	shut, 96	swim, 61
bid, 65	fight, 62	may, 103-108	sing, 61	swing, 61
bind, 62	find, 62	mean, 91	sink, 61	take, 67
bite, 70	flee, 93	meet, 94	sit, 65	teach, 98
bleed, 94	fling, 61	mote, 107	slay, 67	tear, 64
blow, 74	fly, 74	must, 103-108	sleep, 91	tell, 98
break, 64	forsake, 87	need, 100	slide, 70	think, 98
breed, 94	freeze, 72	ought, 103-108	sling, 61	thrive, 69
bring, 98	freight, 93	pen, 89	slink, 61	throw, 74
build, 90	get, 64	put, 96	slit, 96	thrust, 96
burn, 89	gild, 90	quit, 96	smell, 89	tread, 64
burst, 96	gird, 90	quoth, 79	smite, 69	wake, 67
buy, 98	give, 65	read, 94	sow, 74	wax, 67
can, 103-108	go, 79	reave, 92	speak, 64	wear, 64
cast, 96	grind, 62	rend, 90	speed, 94	weave, 64
catch, 98	grow, 74	rid, 96	spell, 89	weep, 91
chide, 70	hang, 77	ride, 69	spend, 90	wend, 79
choose, 72	have, 100, 102	ring, 61	spill, 89	wet, 96
cleave, 64, 92	hear, 93	rise, 69	spin, 61	whet, 96
cling, 61	heave, 64	run, 61	spit, 96	will, 103-108
clothe, 100	hide, 70	say, 93	split, 96	win, 61
come, 79	hit, 96	see, 65	spoil, 89	wind, 62
cost, 96	hold, 75	seek, 98	spread, 96	wit, 79
creep, 91	hurt, 96	seethe, 72	spring, 61	work, 98
crow, 74	keep, 91	sell, 98	stand, 67	wring, 61
cut, 96	kneel, 91	send, 90	stave, 67	write, 89
dare, 100, 102	knit, 96	set, 96	steal, 64	
deal, 91	know, 74	shake, 67	stick, 77	
dig, 77	lead, 94	shall, 103-108	sting, 61	
do, 79	lean, 91	shear, 64	stink, 61	



## CHAPTER IX.

## ADVERBS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. We saw in II. 25-26 that, while a word that modifies a noun is called an adjective, one that modifies a verb is called an ADVERB; and also that, besides verbs, adverbs modify adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs: thus,

He spoke truly;            A truly upright man;  
I see him very often.

2. Not all adverbs can be used with all the parts of speech that adverbs modify.

The adverbs that modify other adverbs are almost only those that express degree: as **very**, **too**, **more**, **most**.

The same are used most freely with adjectives. But, as adjectives shade off into participles, implying something of state or action, they take more or less freely the whole series of modifying adverbs which the verb takes.

On the other hand, adverbs of degree are less used with verbs. Some of the commonest of them, as **very** and **too**, even do not go with verbs directly at all; they have to be changed to **very much**, **too much**.

Hence these are also avoided with perf participles, except such as have been turned fully into adjectives; thus, we say

very timid, but very much frightened;  
very glad, but very much rejoiced;  
too weary, but too much fatigued;  
too angry, but too much enraged.

3. Adverbs shade off into prepositions and conjunctions; and the same word is often used as two of these three parts of speech, or even as all the three. Thus, the oldest and simplest prepositions, such as

in, on, off, up, to,



were originally adverbs, and most of them are still used as such : for example,

He comes in ;	They ran off ;
It turned up ;	Move to and fro.

And when an adverb, instead of modifying simply the verb in a sentence, modifies in meaning rather the whole sentence, showing its relation to another sentence or word, it gets the value of a conjunction, and may be named and parsed as one : thus, we have the adverbial use of **otherwise** in

He might have stayed, but he chose otherwise ;  
and the conjunctival use in

He was angry, otherwise he would have stayed.

See also **XI. 8. b.**

#### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

4. Adverbs in English are innumerable, and of the most various meaning ; but we may divide them roughly into the following classes :

a. Adverbs of **PLACE** and **MOTION** : as

here, there, yonder, below, above, in, out,  
up, down, back, forward, hither, hence.

b. Adverbs of **TIME** and **SUCCESION** : as

then, now, formerly, hereafter, always,  
often, seldom, never, soon, afterward,  
next, once, twice, first, thirdly, fourthly.

c. Adverbs of **MANNER** and **QUALITY** : as

so, thus, somehow, otherwise, well, ill,  
truly, foolishly, roundly, faithfully.

d. Adverbs of **MEASURE** and **DEGREE** : as

much, little, more, least, almost, all, as,  
so, scarcely, quite, very, enough, greatly.

e. Adverbs of **MODALITY**, or **MODAL** adverbs—such as show the mode or way in which the thought is conceived by the speaker, the relation of one thought to another, and so on : thus, **AFFIRMATIVE** adverbs are, for example,

surely, certainly, indeed ;

NEGATIVE are

not, noways;

POTENTIAL are

perhaps, possibly, probably;

CAUSAL are

hence, therefore, accordingly.

Adverbs used in asking questions, as

when, where, whence, how, why, wherefore,

are called INTERROGATIVE, and are themselves classed as INTERROGATIVE adverbs of TIME, PLACE, MANNER, and so on.

The modal adverbs oftenest come to be used as conjunctions. The same adverb may be of one and another class, in different meanings and connections.

#### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

5. Adverbs, like the other parts of speech, are simple, derivative, or compound.

##### I.—Simple.

Examples of SIMPLE adverbs, or of such as cannot be traced to simpler forms without going outside of English, are

so, now, ill, much, quite, often.

##### II.—Derivative.

The principal classes of DERIVATIVE adverbs are as follows:—

a. Adverbs are formed from adjectives with the suffix *-ly*. Examples are

truly, wholly, hastily, fully, gaily, ponderously,  
disinterestedly.

This is by far the largest class of our adverbs: most adjectives of quality, and some of other kinds, take the suffix *-ly* to make a corresponding adverb.

The above list shows that the addition of *-ly* to the adjective causes, in some cases, changes in spelling (cp. V. 34). More marked cases are adjectives in *-ble*, which shorten *-blely* into *-bly*: thus,

ably, terribly, respectably;

and those in *-ic* which change the *-ic* into *-ical* before *-ly*: thus, frantically, rustically, authentically.

Modern adverbs in *-ly* represent O. E. adverbs in *-lice* from adjectives in *-lic*. But, even in Old English, there are adverbs in *-lice* without corresponding adjectives in *-lic*. See also IV. 12.

b. A few adverbs are formed from adjectives and nouns by the suffix **-wise**: thus,

**likewise, otherwise, crosswise, lengthwise.**

These might almost more properly be called compound, since **wise** has not gone absolutely out of use as an independent word (IV. 32. a).

c. Adverbs of direction are formed from other adverbs (rarely from adjectives and nouns), by the suffix **-ward** or **-wards** (-s being the possessive inflection): thus,

**toward or towards, upward or upwards, forward.**

d. The adverb suffix **-ling** is obsolete, except in the old-style poetic **darkling** (now sometimes used in poetry as an adjective): thus, in Shakespeare,

Oh! wilt thou darkling leave me?

It was used with nouns also: thus,

**headling, sideling;**

which have become (IV. 46. c)

**headlong, sidelong.**

e. Not a few adjectives are used as adverbs without any change of form: thus,

**much, more, little, all, ill, fast, far.**

Some such adjectives take also the ending **ly**, there being some difference generally in regard to meaning between the form with **-ly** and the one without it: thus,

**even and evenly; most and mostly; wide and widely;  
hard and hardly; late and lately; sore and sorely.**

The identity of form of many adjectives and adverbs is due to the loss of the O. E. adverbial suffix **-e**: thus, **hard**, the adj. and adv., is the O. E. adj. *heard* and adv. *heardē*.

In Shakespeare's time, by a false analogy, adjectives were freely used as adverbs: thus,

Which the false man does easy;      Raged more fierce;  
Thou didst it excellent.

Sometimes two forms are found side by side: thus,

**She was new lodged, and newly deified.**

A few adverbs are modified case-forms of adjectives. Examples are

From genitives: **unaware-s, el-se, on-ce, twi-ce, thri-ce** (M. E. *elles, ones, twyes, thryes*); from datives: **little, seldom** (O. E. *lytlum, seldum*); from acc.: **enough** (O. E. *genoh*).

In poetry, especially, the use of an adjective as adverb directly, without any added ending, is very common. Examples are

The birds sang clear;                      Rivers glide free;  
The listener scarce might know;   Soft sighed the flute.

Such constructions, however, shade off into those in which the modifying word is properly to be regarded as a predicate adjective.

f. A few adverbs are adverbially used cases of nouns: thus,  
home, back, half,

which are objective cases; and needs, which is a possessive case; and wise, ways, days, times, and so on, in compound adverbs, are of the same origin.

The obsolete *whilom* is the O. E. dat. pl. *hwilum*; in *piecemeal* and obsolete adverbs in *-meal*, the latter part is the O. E. dat. pl. *mealum*, "by portions"; *ever* and *never*, O. E. *æfre* and *næfre*, are originally dat. sing., and the noun part of a large number of adverbial phrases and compounds was originally an accusative, the construction being kept up, although the case-inflection has disappeared: thus,

sometime, noway, alway, straightway, likewise, yesterday,  
meanwhile, the while.

Many such accusatives have now the genitive form (IV. 46. c), compounds in *-ways* becoming confounded with those in *-wise*: thus,

sometimes, always, straightwise, otherways (and *-wise*),  
noways (and *-wise*).

g. Three series of adverbs corresponding to one another come from pronominal roots: they are

here,	hither,	hence;		
there,	thither,	thence,	then,	the, thus;
where,	whither,	whence,	when,	why, how.

The ending *-re* marks place; *-ther* is comparative; *-n* is accusative, then being a differentiated form of *than*; *-nce* is a compound suffix, *-ce* being genitive; the (used before comparatives), *why* and its doublet *how*, and probably thus, are instrumental cases (VI. 31 and 37). The *where* series, when used relatively, are conjunctions rather than adverbs: see XI. 8. b. The *is* is used both relatively and demonstratively: thus, The ("By how much"—rel.) sooner the ("by so much"—dem.) better.

h. A number of adverbs come from nouns and adjectives by the prefix *a* (usually for the earlier *on*): thus,

aback, ahead, aside, afoot, athirst, alive (on life),  
aright, anew, along, abroad, afar.

And the *be-* of *betimes*, *beside*, *beyond*, *between*, *before*, and so on, is, in like manner, from the preposition *by*.

**III.—Compounds.**

6. **COMPOUND** adverbs are mostly little phrases of two (rarely more) words, which have, as it were, grown together into one. Examples are

sideways, headforemost, knee-deep, meanwhile, always,  
already, almost, sometimes, heretofore, henceforward,  
somehow, to-night.

Such combinations of a preposition with the word which it governs are especially common: thus,

indeed, erewhile, overhead, forever, forsooth, hitherto,  
beforehand, whereupon, thereafter.

In to-day, to-morrow, to-night, the *to* is the preposition, the phrases being originally equivalent to “for the day,” and so on.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where*, are combined with many prepositions, forming compound adverbs which are equivalent to *it*, *this*, or *that*, and *which* or *what*, along with the preposition: thus,

Herein (“In this”) lies the difficulty;  
In the day thou eatest thereof (“of it”);  
The means whereby (“by which”) I live;  
Wherewith (“With what”) shall I save Israel?  
In whatsoever state I am, therewith (“with that”)  
to be content.

**COMPARISON.**

7. Many adverbs of quality, like adjectives of the same kind, are capable of being made to express various degrees of quality, by adding those adverbs which are used for the same purpose along with the adjectives. Examples are

truly, more truly, most truly, less truly.

Also, of the adjectives which are used as adverbs without change of form, the comparative and superlative degrees are generally used adverbially likewise: thus,

better, best; worse, worst; faster, fastest.

But only a very few words that are always adverbs have a real comparison of their own. Examples are

soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest.

*Rather* is a comparative which has at present no corresponding positive or superlative. The adjective *rathe*, “early,” is now obsolete: thus, in Milton,

Bring the *rathe* primrose that forsaken dies.

The poetic *erst* is a superlative from the comparative *ere* (prep. and conj.).

s. In Old English, the adverbial suffixes of comparison were *-or* and *-ost* (now reduced to *-er* and *-est* [cp. VII. 24]), which were added to adverbs in *-e* or *-lice*, final *e* being dropped; and, in Shakespeare and Milton, we often find adverbs in *-ly* compared by adding *-er* and *-est*, the three-syllabled words thus formed being pronounced as dissyllables: thus,

Destroyers rightlier called the plagues of men;  
 --"to show what coast thy sluggish crare  
 Might easiest harbor in"--

### SPECIAL USES OF ADVERBS.

9. There are cases in which adverbs seem to modify prepositions: thus,

He has jumped clear over the wall.

But, as the adverb *clear* modifies the adverb *over* in

He has jumped clear over,

it is evident that the adverb modifies merely the adverbial notion in the preposition *over*: prepositions, indeed, have sometimes been described as transitive adverbs. Other examples are

Far from the world, O Lord, I flee!  
 A nail driven deep into the wood.

Such cases shade off into those, on the one hand, in which the modifying word is no proper adverb, but an adjective belonging to the noun, to which adjective is added the phrase beginning with the preposition; or into those, on the other, in which the modifying word is to be taken as an adverb modifying this phrase.

10. Sometimes, also, adverbs are used apparently to modify even nouns and pronouns; but, where the adverbs have not become transmuted into adjectives (VII. 59. b), they modify the quality either implied in the word: thus,

After my return home yesterday;

or belonging to it from its function in the sentence: thus,

Gladstone, lately premier of England.

In such constructions as

Just the case; Exactly the sum, or the sum exactly;  
 Merely the walls, or the walls merely; Only a king, or a king only;

the adverbs are primarily attached to the adjectives, though, owing to the fact that these adjectives do not express notions, but merely limit with a weak meaning (VII. 43), they seem to modify the phrase.



Such constructions shade off into those in which the adverb may be valued as an adjective, as in the last of those just given.

In some cases, of course, the adverb has become transmuted into an adjective: thus,

The only true God;                      Him only shalt thou serve;  
Walls merely cannot protect us.

11. The modal adverbs which show the way in which the thought is conceived by the speaker (IX. 4. e) seem to modify sentences: thus,

Perhaps he has made a mistake;

but, as, in this case, the same meaning may be expressed by a change in the predicate: thus,

He may have made a mistake,

such adverbs are evidently attached primarily to the verb, as it is the chief word by which the mind's judgments find expression (VIII. 2).

12. The words **yes** and **no**, which are used in replying or *responding* to a question, and are, therefore, called **RESPONSIVES**, were originally adverbs, but are so no longer, because they are in themselves complete answers. Thus, in answer to the question

Will you go?

**yes** and **no** mean respectively

I will go;    or    I will not go;

and so on with other questions.

The responsives thus stand for a whole sentence, and hence are not properly "parts of speech," in the real sense of the word, but are more analogous to interjections (II. 38 and 39. See also **XVII.** ).

13. Besides **yes**, **ay** (another form of **aye**, O.E. *á*, "ever") is sometimes used as an affirmative responsive. **Yea** and **nay** were, until recently, in general use, as well as **yes** and **no**, but in a different sense; **yea** and **nay** agreeing to, or denying, an affirmative statement, and **yes** and **no** agreeing to, or denying, a negative statement.

**Yes** and **no** have acquired a number of meanings which vary according to the tone of voice used in pronouncing them: thus, in reply to the affirmative statement, **The man is mad**,

**Yes** (acquiescent) means **He is mad**;  
**Yes** (deliberative)    "**He may be mad**;  
**No** (incredulous)    "**You don't say so**;  
**No** (contradictory) "**He is not mad**;

and so on.

Often, too, the thought implied in the speaker's tone is added: thus,

**Yes, he is mad**;    **Yes, he may be mad**; and so on.

14. The adverb **there** is very peculiarly used when it fills up the gap left by the transposed subject of a verb, especially of the verb **be**: thus,

**There is no money here;      There can be no retreat;**  
**There were giants in the land; A land where there is gold;**  
**There fell a frost;      There came a voice from heaven.**

The subject with which the verb agrees in number regularly follows the verb: not, however, in relative and interrogative sentences: thus,

**What there is, is good;      What is there that he cannot do?**

Thus used, the adverb **there** has become so weakened in meaning that it seems merely to fill up the gap left by the transposed subject. As, however, the verb **to be**, when used thus, becomes a complete predicate expressing existence, **there** really affects the meaning of the verb, and may be described as an **INTRODUCTORY ADVERB**.

#### ADVERB-EQUIVALENTS.

15. As in the case of other parts of speech, words not properly adverbs, also phrases and clauses, are sometimes used in sentences with the value of adverbs.

a. Other parts of speech. Examples are

**Three miles broad;      Five cents' worth;**  
**He is somewhat arrogant;**  
**Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring;**  
**Full many a gem of purest ray serene;**  
**Truth administered scalding hot will repel;**  
**Tramp, tramp, across the land they speed;**  
**Splash, splash, across the sea.**

b. We have also adverb-phrases, generally like the compound adverbs, only not grown together into one word like these. They answer the purpose of single adverbs, and often are not easily analyzed and parsed separately, because they either contain words that are rarely or never found except in these phrases—thus,

**by stealth, of yore, at random, in lieu—**

or are of irregular construction, being made up of an adjective (really, one used as a noun), with a preposition governing it: thus,

**in vain, of old, at all, on high, ere long, from far, for good.**

And many other kinds of phrases have the force of adverbs in the sentences to which they belong : thus,

He walked along the deck;  
He did it without my assistance;  
It is beautiful to look upon;  
Spring having come, the flowers bloom.

c. Clauses are also used with the force of adverbs : thus

Where Claribel low lieth, the breezes pause and die;  
Come down, ere my child die; He did as he was told;  
The hireling fleeth, because he is an hireling;  
These things I say that ye might be saved;  
If thou let this man go, thou art not Cæsar's friend.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

1. Discuss the following :

a. An adverb expresses the conditions of time, place, manner, degree, cause, effect, under which an event or attribute may be viewed.

b. The adverb limits or modifies the meaning of the verb. It is said to modify also adjectives and other adverbs ; but this is not generally true, for it applies only to one of the smallest classes of adverbs, those expressing degree.

c. An adverb seems sometimes to modify a preposition ; it really modifies an adverbial phrase.

d. An adverb may modify a noun, but the nouns so modified are transmuted verbs, or verbal nouns : thus, "He was fully master of the subject" is equivalent to "He fully mastered the subject."

e. Most adverbs contain the meaning within themselves ; a small number have no meaning in themselves, but refer to some adjoining clause for the meaning.

f. An adverb is a word which adds to the meaning, and limits the application, of a verb, an adjective, and an adverb.

g. When the verb is intransitive, the adjective should be used in the predicate ; when transitive, the adverb.

h. It is sometimes doubtful whether we are dealing with an adverb that has been reduced to the form of an adjective, or with a predicate adjective ; thus, for example, in "Slow and sure comes up the golden year."

2. Analyze the following :

afoot, agape, sideways, after, almost, anon, hitherto, there,  
than, whilst, backwards, beneath.

3. Illustrate the following statement :

As, when used relatively, expresses degree, manner, time, or the conditions of an action or event.

4. Discuss the following :

a. Even if we admit such an expression as "He is stronger than me" to the good English, there is no adverbial government.

b. From hence and from thence are instances of excess of expression in the way of syntax ; they are not instances of adverbs governed by prepositions.

c. Considered as a means of expressing relative notions—comparison, proportion, condition, and causality—phrases are clearer than words, and clauses are clearer than phrases.

5. Discuss the question as to which of the following is correct :

Charm he never so wisely, or, Charm he ever so wisely.

## 6. By means of

hence, when, ever, after, more, here ;

illustrate as fully as possible the statement in IX. 4 that the same adverb may be of one and another class, in different meanings and connections.

7. Classify the following adverbs on the basis of (1) function, (2) meaning, and (3) form :

now, how, whither, really, presently, why, all, as, half, the, sideways, without, however, thrice, most, headlong.

## THE PARSING OF ADVERBS.

In parsing an adverb we need, as in the case of the other parts of speech, to point out its *kind*, its *form*, and its *construction*. As regards the construction, the adverb is always a modifying word, and has no variety of uses as such; it is enough, then, to mention what word is modified by it. An adverb phrase may be simply defined as such, or it may be analyzed and its parts defined.

Examples of adverbs have been given abundantly in the exercises in previous chapters. A few special cases are added here; others will be given in the exercises upon chapter XIII.

1. Right against the eastern gate where the sun begins his state.  
2. Is she not passing fair? 3. Believe me, yours truly. 4. Full fathoms five my father lies. 5. Honor pricks me on. Yea, but how if honor prick me off when I come on? How then? Can honor set to a leg? No. 6. This was all excellent good. 7. I hear the far-off curfew bell. 8. Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home. 9. A tear at least is due to the unhappy. 10. Smack went the whip. 11. He let it go bang at the window. 12. Peradventure there shall be twenty found there. 13. I, even I, only am left. 14. Old John of Gaunt is grievous sick, my lord. 15. He must needs die. 16. Over these shrill sang the sea-wind. 17. Yet I am inland bred. 18. Nowadays men wander about a-nights and seldom arise betimes in the morn. 19. He lies lurking for you unawares. 20. A stream ran voiceless by, still deadened more. 21. He was a good man, to be sure, and mayhap we shall have none other like him. 22. The torrid clime smote on him sore besides. 23. Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears. 24. 'Tis marvellous good wine, abbot, though a trifle strong. 25. What need we any spur for our cause? 26. Life went a-maying with Nature, Hope, and Poesy, when I was young! When I was young! Ah woful when! Ah! for the change 'twixt Now and Then. 27. Those empty orbs from whence he tore his eyes. 28. Thou never didst them wrong, nor no man wrong. 29. Now and then he was to be seen astride of his horse. 30. How many are there there? 31. He will be none the wiser. 32. I go with you, heart and soul. 33. He is like his father, but he walks like his brother. 34. There being no one there, what need we care?

## CHAPTER X.

## PREPOSITIONS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. A preposition, as we have already seen (II. 28-30), is a connecting word by which a noun or a pronoun is made to limit some other word, or by which a noun or a pronoun is attached to that other word in a relation which the preposition defines.

2. The noun or the pronoun on which the preposition exercises its connecting or attaching force is called its OBJECT, and, like the object of the verb, is in the objective case: thus,  
**with me; from him; to us; on them.**

It is then said of the preposition, as of the verb, that it GOVERNS its object in the objective case: that is, it requires it to take the form of that case.

3. Prepositions did not exist in the earliest stages of language. They were first placed with an adverbial force before verbs (hence the name); afterwards they were used separately with the same value; and, when cases began to lose their force (I. 22), they became auxiliaries to these forms to define more clearly their relation in the sentence. Hence the statement that prepositions govern the objective case, really means that prepositions can be used before the objective case only.

4. The word with which the noun or pronoun is brought into relation by the preposition may be any of the other parts of speech already described. Thus, it may be

a. A verb: as,

- It fell through the air to the ground;  
Put it on the table or into your pocket.

b. An adjective: as,

Good for nothing;	Free from dirt;
Hoary with age;	Prized above measure.

c. An adverb (rarely): as,

Sufficiently for my purpose.

d. Another noun or pronoun : as,

<b>A ring for the finger ;</b>	<b>Doors with hinges ;</b>
<b>Pins without heads ;</b>	<b>Souls above deceit ;</b>
<b>They of Italy ;</b>	<b>Who among you ?</b>

And, as has been pointed out (VII. 59. c. and IX. 15. b.), according to their differences, the phrase composed of a preposition and its object—a prepositional phrase—is known as an adverb-phrase or an adjective-phrase.

5. But a preposition not unfrequently takes for its object a word which is usually an adverb of place or time (V. 72): thus,

**from above, from behind, since then, before then, till now,  
to here, at once, between now and then, for ever ;**

and hence also, naturally enough, a prepositional adverb-phrase is used in the same way : thus,

**From under the house ;                      Since over two weeks ;  
Till within three weeks of his death.**

It has already been pointed out (IX. 15. b.) that, in certain adverbial phrases, a preposition is used before an adjective (really used as a noun).

6. A preposition, especially in poetry, is sometimes made to follow instead of preceding the word it governs : thus,

**To wander earth around ;      Ties all other ties above ;  
The fields among ;                      Look the whole world over.**

But very frequently, in all styles of English, the object of a preposition is placed before the verb in the sentence, while the preposition comes after it : for example,

**What did you come for ?  
John is the name that he answers to ;  
Your objections we make no account of ;  
This house I never again show my face in.**

Then, if the relative word is omitted, as often happens (VI. 62), the preposition still remains in its place after the verb : thus,

**John is the name he answers to.**

And in other constructions, in which there is no expressed object of the preposition, it remains with the verb, or with



an infinitive or participle, having the value of an adverbial adjunct: thus,

A greater blockhead than I took you for;  
Your case shall be attended to;  
A good horse to ride on;  
A place for pitching one's tent in;  
People worth speaking with;  
A matter often inquired into, but never disposed of.

### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

7. The prepositions do not form a very large class of words ; in English the number is considerably less than a hundred ; but they express a great variety of meanings, as the same preposition is often used of different, though kindred, relations : thus, **for**, originally meaning “before,” or “in front of,” and used of “place,” is now used as follows :—

It was meant for a joke; She is small for her age;  
He acted for me; He has spoken for the first time;  
He left for fear of attack; He died for his country;  
He sold it for a cent; For my part, I despise him;  
He left for Toronto, where he stayed for a year;  
For all his wealth, he was despised;

and so on.

From their nature, or from usage, prepositions have such an adaptation to particular terms and relations, that their proper use is of great importance ; but the discussion of such uses is a part of English Composition, not of English Grammar.

8. On the basis of meaning, we may divide prepositions roughly into the following classes ; but, even to a greater degree than in the case of adverbs (IX. 4), the same preposition may be of one or another class in different relations :—

- a. Prepositions expressing relations of PLACE : as,  
from, at, before, behind, beside, under, on, round, near,  
amid, towards, along.
- b. Prepositions expressing relations of TIME : as,  
since, till, ere, after, on, about, near, between, through.
- c. Prepositions expressing relations of CAUSE : as,  
from, of, for, to.

d. Prepositions expressing relations of MANNER: as, after, through, by, with, without, notwithstanding, besides, about.

9. Prepositions, at first, expressed relations of rest or motion in space: thus, of meant "motion from"; by and with, "nearness." They were then extended to relations of "time" as well as of "space": thus, before and after express both. Finally, they were extended to relations of "cause" and "manner." Sometimes, also, a preposition assumed different forms for different relations: thus, of and off.

### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

10. As in the case of other parts of speech, prepositions are SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, OR COMPOUND:

#### I.—Simple.

The simple prepositions are

at, after, against, but, by, down, ere, for, from, in, of, off, over, on (a'), since, through, till, to, under, up, with.

#### II.—Derivative and Compound.

Derivative and compound prepositions are made:

a. From adverbial or other prepositional elements: thus, into, unto, toward, before, behind, beyond, underneath, upon, above, about, until, within, without, throughout.

b. From nouns and adjectives: thus, among or amongst, beside or besides, amid or amidst, across, along, athwart, aslant, around, below, despite, between or betwixt.

The adverbial adjectives nigh, near, next, like, in some of their uses come, by the omission of to, very near to a prepositional value: thus,

She sat near the lake;      Quit yourselves like men.

For the formation of among-s-t and amid-s-t, see IX. 5. e. and IV. 45. e. (3).

c. From participles: thus, saving (or save, from Fr. adj. *sauf*), touching, pending, during, notwithstanding, concerning, respecting, except or excepting (and older excepted), past.

Participles are still used absolutely: thus,

Considering his youth, he is excusable.

and we may thus account for the prepositional use of *saving*, *touching*, *concerning*, *respecting*, *excepting*. The others in the above list originally modified the noun or pronoun that follows in the nominative absolute. In this way we may, perhaps, account for the Shakespearian *save thou* and its analogue *but he*. It must be remembered, however, that in the Elizabethan period the present differentiation of pronoun forms was not always observed (VI. 11).

*Ago* (for earlier *agone* [IV. 45. d. (3)]), that is, "gone by," may also be regarded as a preposition following its object (cp. 6. above): thus,

He left an hour ago;

or, better, as an adverb of time, modified by the adverbial phrase *an hour*, as in *an hour sooner*, *an hour hence*, and so on.

### SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS.

11. a. We have already seen (IX. 3) that a word which would be a preposition when followed by an objective case, is an adverb when used alone. In this way is explained the use of *besides* in

No one was there besides;

and of phrases like *in addition* in

He gave me this in addition,

which becomes prepositional in

He gave me this in addition to that.

b. In the construction,

For me to die is gain,

*for* has not retained its full prepositional value, but has become a mere introductory word (II. 39. 1), still, however, retaining its power of government.

This idiom is probably due to the older use of *for to* with the root-infinitive in all its relations: thus,

If he will not suffer my people for to pass;

What went ye out for to see?

conjoined to the fact that the construction in

No wonder is a lewed man to ruste,

which we find in Chaucer and other early writers, does not mark clearly the relations of the different parts of the sentence.

This construction shades off into one in which the *for* is to be regarded as retaining its full prepositional value: thus,

The wind sits fair for news to go to Ireland;

The night is too dark for us to see.

### PREPOSITION-EQUIVALENTS.

12. There are many phrases, combinations of independent words, which are used in a way so like that in which prepo-

sitions are used that they are conveniently and properly enough treated as equivalents of prepositions, or PREPOSITION-PHRASES. Such are, for example,

out of, from out, as to, as for, on this (or that, etc.) side,  
along side of, in front of, by way of, for the sake of,  
because of, instead of or in lieu of, according to, in  
respect or regard to,

and not a few others. See II. 43.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

### §§ 1-6.

1. Discuss the merits of the following definitions :

A preposition is a word shewing the relation of two other words in *the same sentence* ; (2) placed before a noun or a pronoun to shew its relation to *some other word* in the sentence ; (3) that will combine only with a noun or a pronoun ; (4) prefixed to a noun or a pronoun (or its equivalent), to make a qualifying or adverbial phrase ; (5) placed before a substantive, to shew the relation in which *things*, and their actions and attributes, stand to other things.

2. Comment upon and illustrate the following :

a. Prepositions are indeclinable, as the relations of things are external to the things themselves, and are not affected by the changes which take place in them.

b. Prepositions exhibit the wonderful economy of language. The number of relations is almost infinite, yet they are all expressed by a comparatively small number of prepositions, and this without any confusion or danger of mistake.

3. How do you reconcile the statement : "In modern English the case-endings are nearly all lost, so that case-endings and prepositions are not both used," with the existence of such a phrase as "the noblest castle of the duke's?"

### §§ 7-10

1. Classify the following prepositions according to (1) form and (2) meaning :

of, from, towards, under, between, amongst, without, by way of, except, athwart, through, touching, concerning, instead of, apart.

2. Form sentences to shew the proper prepositions to be used after the following, and state the relation each expresses :

absolve, abhorrence, accord, acquit, accuse, affinity, agree, adapted, attend, bestow, boast, call, change, confer, confide, conform, comply, consonant, convenient, conversant, correspond, dependent, derogatory, derogate, differ, different, disappointed, dissent, exception, free, glad, independent, insist, involve, lay hold, martyr, need, prevail, profit, recreant, reconcile, resolve, take hold, taste, think, thirst.

## THE PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS.

Usually it is unnecessary in parsing the preposition to define its kind or its form. We need only to point out what word or phrase is the object of the preposition, to what it is joined by the latter, and for what purpose. The exercises in the foregoing chapters afford ample practice. Further examples are deferred until the classification of prepositional phrases is taken up in Chapter XIII.

## GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. Discuss the propriety of such forms as

**moneyed, comfortable, positivist, telegram, bicyclist.**

2. Shew how the original meanings of the following have been modified in each case by their use as auxiliaries: **have, be, can, shall, may, must, will.**

3. Shew that it is correct to value the forms, **feel** and **teach**, as belonging to the New conjugation, and not as "Mixed," that is partly Old and partly New.

4. Illustrate the statement that words indicating relations are often traceable to nouns and verbs.

5. Give examples of correlative words in English, and some sentences illustrative of their proper use.

6. Addison wrote in *The Spectator*, "The men begun to embellish themselves." Comment on this with reference to the history of such forms as **begun** and **begun**, and **rang** and **rung**.

7. Discuss the meaning of the syllable **self**. Give some reasons for determining whether it should be regarded as a noun or an adjective.

8. Explain, under general heads, the peculiarities of conjugation of **be, go, ought, must.**

9. Discuss the value of the following rules which have been given by some for the use of the subjunctive in English.

(1). In hypothetical sentences the subjunctive should be employed in the conditional clause, when it is intended to express doubt or denial; otherwise the indicative should be used.

(2). In the consequent or principal clause, the subjunctive should be employed if it express what is future and contingent, or if it refer to past time and imply a denial of the supposition; otherwise the indicative should be used.

(3). In dependent interrogative clauses the subjunctive is employed.

10. Explain the term *Auxiliary*, and give examples of the different kinds of auxiliaries in English, showing in each case the causes that have led to their use.

11. Make a list of the inflections of English verbs and show the use of each in the expression of our thoughts.

12. Discuss the statement that such a sentence as the following demonstrates the necessity for an additional pronoun in English: "Some one has been here, trying to make himself comfortable."

13. If in a list of the pronouns you include **another**, but not such an expression as **the good**, assign reasons for the exclusion of the latter.

14. Give examples to show the definite and the indefinite use of the pronouns, **he, it, one, who.**

15. Give the tense-values of the verbs in the following:

I see the man; I live in London; I dine at 8 P.M.; She skates well; He prepares to invade Canada; He comes to us this evening; When he comes, I always see him.

16. What grammatical conclusions would you draw from the equivalence of the following:

They made James deputy; They made a deputy of James; They deputized James.

17. Account for the nature of the inflections in the following forms:

**postage stamps, lords justices, men servants, summonses, courts martial, sisters-in-law** (but **court martial's, sister-in-law's**).

18. What tendency in language causes us to substitute **there** for **thither** in "He has gone thither?"

19. Distinguish the values of **would** in the following:

He would often walk by the sea shore; This would seem to be correct.

20. Distinguish the values of **do** in the following:

**This will do; How do you do? He will do the work.**

## CHAPTER XI.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. A conjunction (II. 31-32), like a preposition, is a word that connects other words, at the same time showing something as to their relation to one another.

But a conjunction is a very different kind of connective from a preposition :

a. In the first place, its usual and principal office is to connect two sentences together : thus,

He spoke and they listened ;  
They listened, but they could not hear ;  
We piped while they danced ;  
They went because they could not help it ;  
He will pay if you wish it ;  
I see that the way is hard ;  
He knows whether he did it.

If, however, a preposition is used to join sentences instead of words, it is no longer a preposition, but becomes a conjunction : thus,

You may wait—until (prep.) to-morrow—until (conj.) he comes ;  
He will come—before (prep.) me—before (conj.) I come.

b. In the second place, though some of the conjunctions—especially **and**, **or**, **but**—often connect words and phrases in the same sentence, these words and phrases are always co-ordinate (II. 53) : that is to say, they are used alike in the sentence, or have the same construction. They may be, for example, two or more subjects or objects of the same verb, or objects of the same preposition : thus,

He and I ran a race ;      Two and two make four ;  
The word cannot retain its meaning and be reduced  
to a simpler form ;

A slice of bread and butter ;

or adjectives or adverbs, or their equivalents, modifying the same word : thus,



An honest but mistaken man; Neither well nor truly said;  
A man of good principles but of mistaken views;

or prepositions governing the same word: thus,

By and with our consent; Either for or against me.

Even two verbs having the same subject are also often connected by these conjunctions: as,

He came and saw it; We heard but refused the request.

In such a case the question arises whether we shall or shall not consider such a sentence as two, the second having its subject omitted. See XVII.

A conjunction, therefore, is used to join together sentences, or phrases or words used in the same way in a sentence.

2. Without conjunctions, our speech would consist of a number of short sentences whose relation to one another we could only infer. This was the condition of the Aryan speech at first; and, even yet, the conjunction may be omitted with marked rhetorical effect: thus,

Serve the Lord with gladness. (and) Come before His face with singing.  
The Lord reigneth. (therefore) Let the earth rejoice.

Conjunctions are more a development of literature than any other part of speech. Until about three centuries ago, as a result of the widespread study of logic, their use was far more extended than at present, when, from the practical character of the age, every dispensable word is omitted, and the connection of the thought, especially in spoken language, is to be inferred from the context. A very few conjunctions, chiefly *and*, *if*, *but*, *for*, and *that*, serve our purposes, and in particular (that is, the mere joining of the thoughts) being used to indicate a variety of relations.

#### CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO USE.

3. The most important division of the conjunctions, according to their use, is into CO-ORDINATING and SUBORDINATING conjunctions.

##### I.—Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

4. CO-ORDINATING conjunctions are those that join together sentences of equal order or rank. The commonest are

*and*, *or*, *but*, *for*.

*And* simply *couples* or joins on one sentence to another, and hence is called COPULATIVE. Others of similar force are

*also*, *likewise*, *too*, *moreover*, *as* *we* *as*, *further*, *now*.

*b*. *Or* implies an ALTERNATIVE, and is best so called: others like it are

*either*, *else*, *neither*, *nor*.

**Either** and **or**, their negatives **neither** and **nor**, and (in old style) **whether** and **or**, are called **CORRELATIVE** (that is, "having a mutual relation"), because they occur generally together, introducing the two alternatives, and the former of them is always followed by the latter: thus,

**Either** he must leave, **or** I shall go;  
**Neither** this man sinned, **nor** his parents.

There are also correlative copulative conjunctions: thus, **both . . . and**; **at once (or alike) . . . and**; **not only . . . but also**; **as well . . . as**; **what . . . what**.

c. **But** usually implies something opposed or *adverse* to what has been said, and hence is called **ADVERSATIVE**: thus,

**You thought him honest, but he is not.**

Others like it are

**yet, however, still, only, nevertheless, notwithstanding.**

d. **For** points out a reason or cause, and is called **CAUSAL**; and with it may be put

**therefore, then, hence,**

which connect an inference or conclusion with the reason for it.

5. Combinations of some of the above conjunctions are very common: thus,

**but then, but yet, and moreover, and also, and yet.**

When the combination consists of conjunctions of the same class, as **and moreover**, **but yet**, greater emphasis is given to the expression; but when, as in **and therefore**, **but then**, the combination consists of conjunctions of different classes, we have two different kinds of co-ordination, and we must classify such a combination according as the general meaning of the passage determines which kind predominates.

## II.—Subordinating Conjunctions.

6. **SUBORDINATING** conjunctions are those which join a subordinate or dependent clause to that on which it depends (II. 54).

Some of the commonest conjunctions and conjunction-phrases of this class are:

a. Conjunctions of **PLACE** and **TIME**: thus,

**where, whence, when, as, while (or whilst), until, ere, before, since, after, as soon as, as long as.**

b. Conjunctions of CAUSE and CONDITION : thus,  
because, since, whereas, for that ; unless, if, except,  
provided ; though, although, albeit, notwithstanding.

c. Conjunctions of END OR PURPOSE : thus,  
that, so that, in order that, lest.

d. Conjunctions of COMPARISON : thus,  
as, than.

After the comparative conjunctions, the clause is especially often shortened, sometimes to a single word : for example,

He is a better man than I [am] ;  
Thou shalt love thy neighbor as [thou lovest] thyself.

And with the relative **who**, **than** is treated as if it were a preposition, requiring an objective case (VI. 43) : thus,

Than whom there is none better.

#### SPECIAL USES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

7. A few conjunctions have peculiar uses :

a. **That** (apart from its use in the sense of "in order that" : thus, **He died that we might live**) has a peculiar value in introducing a clause used with the value of a noun : for example, as subject noun,

That he was here is not true ;

as object noun,

I did not say that he was here ;

as object of a preposition,

I should try, except that I fear to fail.

We may best call it, then, the SUBSTANTIVE conjunction.

This peculiarity in the use of the conjunction **that** is due to its origin. Used as above, it was at first the demonstrative pronoun with the following sentence in apposition thereto : thus,

That (namely) he was here is not true ;  
I did not say that (namely) he was here.

b. In its normal use, the conjunction connects two thoughts, both of which are expressed in the same sentence. But it is used also at the beginning of a sentence, to show the relation of the thought it expresses to one involved or expressed in what precedes. Generally, this is a

mere matter of punctuation. Occasionally, however, owing to some emotion, the preceding thought is not expressed : thus,

**And do you really think so?**

c. Again, when we say

**He as well as I was there,**

we have a conjunction-phrase used with its full connective force ; but in

**He was there as well,**

the force is weakened, only the second term of the relation being expressed. Conjunctions of similar force are also, too, likewise : thus,

**He was there also (too, likewise).**

And of the same nature is the use of either in

**He was not there either.**

Just as prepositions have been described as transitive adverbs, so conjunctions have been described as relative adverbs. Hence some grammarians, with a good deal of reason, describe also, too, and likewise as adverbs. Compare X. 11. a.

### WORDS USED AS CONJUNCTIONS.

8. a. Only a few simple words are used solely as conjunctions : such are

**and, or, nor, lest, than.**

b. Many conjunctions are also adverbs ; and it often is not possible to draw a distinct line between the use of a word as adverb and as conjunction. As above pointed out, the same word is an adverb when it distinctly modifies the verb in a clause, and a conjunction when it modifies rather the whole clause, determining its relation to another. For example, we have adverbial uses in

**He finished his work, and then went away ;**

**He might have stayed, but he chose otherwise ;**

**When we left, he was yet living.**

And we may value as conjunctive the uses in

**Have you finished? then go away ;**

**He was angry, otherwise he would have stayed ;**

**He is very ill, yet he may live a week.**

The words

**when, where, whither, whence, why, how,**

which are adverbs when used interrogatively, are conjunctions when used relatively, since their relative force (VI. 44-49) directly joins on the clause which contains them to an antecedent word or clause. So, too, with their compounds.

c. Many prepositions are also used as conjunctions : especially by the omission of the substantive conjunction **that** which formerly followed them (and is sometimes still used) : thus,

**He had left before I arrived ;**

or

**He had left before that I arrived.**

Other prepositions used in the same way are

**after, ere, since, till, until, for, but.**

d. By the omission of **that**, imperatives like **say, suppose ;** and principles like **provided**, used in what was originally the absolute construction ; approach the value of conjunctions : thus, for example, in

**Suppose he fail, what then ? I will go, provided you do.**

See also XIV. 25, and XVI. 16.

9. **That** as conjunction, as well as **that** as relative pronoun (VI. 62), is often omitted without, however, changing the character of the clause : thus,

**When is it mothers learn their love ?**

On the other hand, in old style English, **that** was inserted as a sort of auxiliary after conjunctions which were originally interrogatives, to give them a relative meaning, before their connective use was firmly established (cp. VI. 43) ; and, by a false analogy, **that** was then also inserted after other conjunctions : for example,

**When that the poor have cried ;**

**If that my husband now were but returned !**

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

1. Discuss the merits of the following definitions :

a. A conjunction is a word (1) which connects sentences, parts of sentences, and words ; (2) which connects, but which has neither a pronominal nor an adverbial meaning ; (3) which shows the relation of one thought to another (the conjunction **and** being the only exception) ; (4) which joins sentences or words together ; (5) which is itself void of signification, but is so formed as to help signification by making two or more significant sentences to be one significant sentence.

2. Discuss the following :

a. Conjunctions are of comparatively late growth, and either are of pronominal origin or are abbreviated forms of expression.

b. Such words as **therefore, yet, likewise, hence, thence**, are not conjunctions ; they are only simple adverbs. All demonstratives imply reference and so cause a connection in thought between two ideas ; but they are not connecting words.

c. Conjunctions differ from other connecting words thus : from prepositions, in never governing a case ; from relative pronouns, in joining independent clauses, and forming no part of either ; from adverbs in this, that while adverbs may be moved to other parts of the sentence to which they belong, conjunctions cannot be moved without destroying the sense.

d. The government of mood is the only form of government of which conjunctions are capable.

e. The relative pronoun is always a part of the second clause ; a conjunction is no part of either.

3. Discuss the etymology of the following conjunctions :

**albeit, that, whereas, because, if, lest, unless, but, while, though.**

4. Explain the use of the conjunctions in the following :

Two and two make four ; John and Jane are a handsome couple ; All men are black or white ; He sat between you and me ; He must be suffering since he has been wounded ; He must be suffering, since he has been wounded ; He will not do it because you bade him.

### THE PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Besides naming a conjunction or conjunctive-phrase as such, we need only to point out whether it is coordinating or subordinating, and what are the words, phrases, or sentences it connects.

### GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. Discuss and illustrate the following statement :

The various notions of which the mind is capable may be divided into two great classes :—

I. Notions of all the *things*, mental or material, real or imaginary, of which we can form any conception.

II. Notions of all the states, actions, or qualities, which we can in any way attribute to them.

Hence there are two principal classes of words corresponding to these classes of notions :—

(1) Names of things, *i.e. substantives* ; and (2) names of actions, states, or qualities, *i.e. attributives*.

We need, however, not only to express notions, but to indicate certain *relations* as existing among them. These must be either relations which exist between one notion and another, or relations which exist between one affirmation and another.

The only part of speech left is the interjection, which does not stand in any grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

2. Explain fully the nature of those words in the following, (1) which are not used to express our thoughts, and (2) which partake of the nature of more than one of the eight parts of speech :

No, alas ! Ah me ! there is no one whose speaking is likely to prove harassing to us in the arranging of the difficulty, when the interesting youth, by displaying himself on his prancing charger, as the defender of the faith, will secure the victory for all those friends of his.



## CHAPTER XII.

## INTERJECTIONS.

## DEFINITION AND USES.

1. As we saw in II. 34 and 35, an interjection is not in the proper sense a "part of speech," since it is "thrown in amongst," and does not combine with, other "parts" to form that whole which we call a sentence. It is a direct intimation of feeling or of will, made expressive chiefly by the tone, the inflection of voice, with which it is uttered. Thus, for example, **ah!** expresses a number of different feelings—such as joy, pain, surprise, disgust—according to the way in which it is uttered.

2. The interjections are not real natural outbursts of feeling, like a scream, a groan, a sigh, though they come nearer to this character than does anything else in language. They are, like all our other words, means of communication; they are utterances by which we seek to signify to others that we are moved by such and such feelings. Hence, each language has its own set of interjections, more or less different from those of other languages.

## CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

3. Some of the ordinary English interjections are:

a. Of joy, glad surprise, pleasant emotion:

**oh! ah! ha! hey! hurrah! huzza!**

b. Of painful feeling or suffering:

**oh! ah! alas! well-a-day! dear me! heigh-ho!**

c. Of disapproval or contempt:

**poh! fie! faugh! fudge! whew!**

d. Of calling attention:

**ho! hola! hollo! hem! lo!**

e. Of quieting or repressing:

**hist! hush! tut! mum!**

f. Words made in imitation of natural sounds are a kind of interjection: thus,

**pop! bang! bow-wow! ding-dong! rub-a-dub!**

#### WORDS USED AS INTERJECTIONS.

4. The sentence is the means of expression of calm assertion, of reasoning, of explanation, of description. When the speaker is moved with strong feeling, the sentence-form of expression is wont to be more or less abandoned, and only the prominent words to be uttered, with tone and gesture that sufficiently explain them.

Some of our ordinary words, real parts of speech, are so much used in this exclamatory way that they are almost to be called interjections. Such are

**why, what, well, indeed, hail, behold.**

Words and phrases of asseveration, from **indeed** and **I declare** up to the strongest oaths, are of the nature of interjections.

5. Some words, which now appear only as interjections, were once ordinary parts of speech; but their character as such has become corrupted and disguised: thus,

**wounds** ("by God's wounds"); **O dear** (*O dieu*, "O God");  
**egad** ("by God"); **alas** (*ah lasso*, "O [me] miserable").

On the other hand, our commonest interjections are spontaneous utterances, and do not originate in grammatical forms: for example,

**O, oh, alack, pooh, pshaw, heigh-ho.**

Hence, interjections may be classed according to origin. as **PRIMARY** and **SECONDARY**.

#### SPECIAL USES OF INTERJECTIONS.

6. The interjections are sometimes combined with other words in exclamatory phrases, and, thus used, more nearly approach the character of a part of speech, often resembling the verb (II. 39. 2), and governing a case: thus,

**Ah me! Alas the day! O horror! What ho!**  
**O for a calm, a thankful heart! O that it were so!**

The **O** used with the nominative of address the interjectional case of the noun, is very common : for example,

**O thou that bringest good tidings! Give ear, O ye heavens!  
Justice, O royal duke! To your tents, O Israel.**

7. The interjection resembles the verb more than it does any of the other parts of speech. This is owing to the fact that the verb is the central representative of the predicative force (II. 2), which, in the interjection, is held in abeyance by emotion.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Discuss and illustrate the following :

a. Interjections fall into three well-marked classes: (1) Emotional, (2) Imitative, and (3) Abbreviated. They may also be classified as, (1) Interjections of nature, or primitive interjections, and (2) artificial, or historical interjections.

b. When we speak of grammar as the handmaid of logic, the interjection must stand aside.

c. An interjection implies a meaning which it would require a whole grammatical sentence to expound, and it may be regarded as the rudiment of such a sentence ; but it is a confusion of thought to rank it among the parts of speech. It is not in any sense a part ; it is a whole (though an indistinct) expression of feeling or thought. The interjection bears to its context the same sort of relation as a pictorial illustration does.

d. The interjection is of all that is printed the most difficult thing to read well aloud.

e. In proportion to the march of culture is the decline of interjectional speech.

2. Criticize :

As to sense, **O** imparts merely a vocative effect, while **oh!** conveys some particular sentiment, as of appeal, entreaty, etc. ; as to sound, **O** is enclitic, that is, as it were redines upon the following word and has no accent of its own, while **oh!** is one of the fullest of monosyllables.

## THE PARSING OF INTERJECTIONS.

An interjection needs only to be defined as such, along with a statement of the purpose for which it is used—the feeling which it expresses, the natural sound it imitates, and so on.

## CHAPTER XIII.

## SYNTAX: THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

## ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

1. In the preceding chapters we have been dealing chiefly with words, in order to be able to see what part of speech each of them is, what are the principal uses of each part of speech in the sentence, how some parts of speech are inflected, and how some words are derived from others or put together to form others. This branch of grammar is known as ETYMOLOGY.

2. Properly speaking, etymology includes only that part of grammar (III. and IV.) which investigates the origin of words and the principles according to which they have their present form and meaning (the term literally means "a discussion of the true source of a word"). But, by writers on grammar, it has been extended to include the inflections and classification, as well as the history of the growth of separate words. Sometimes, also, it includes the consideration of the connection that exists among words of different languages of the same family; but this branch of the subject is also called COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY.

3. We shall now consider how words are put together for use in the expression of our thoughts, that is, the branch of grammar which is known as SYNTAX (the term literally means "a putting together," or "arranging").

In dealing with etymology, we found it necessary to state and illustrate not a few of the leading principles of syntax: we have here to take these up in a connected and systematic way, adding others that are new.

## KINDS OF SENTENCES.

4. The combinations of words which we make in expressing our thoughts are called SENTENCES; and these sentences are of three kinds, according to their form (II. 49-51):

1. ASSERTIVE; 2. INTERROGATIVE; and 3. IMPERATIVE.

5. The usual sentence is the assertion, or statement; or, as we have called it (II. 6), the ASSERTIVE SENTENCE.

This is the regular form of our expression ; it is the model, as it were, of which the other two are variations. We shall, therefore, for the present, consider it alone, afterwards (XVI.) taking up the two other kinds, and also (XVII.) the incomplete or abbreviated sentence, in which one or another part usually expressed is wanting.

## THE NATURE AND THE RELATION OF THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

### I.—General Principles.

6. No sentence can be made except by means of a verb, since the verb is the only part of speech that asserts, or predicates.

7. All that is absolutely necessary besides a verb to make a complete assertion, or full sentence, is the name of some thing about which the assertion is made. For details, see V. 70-75.

8. As this name is the subject of the assertion, or that about which the assertion is made, it is called in grammar the **SUBJECT** of the sentence ; and the verb is called the **PREDICATE**, that is, "what is stated or asserted" (II. 8 and 9).

9. As the verb is the essential part of every sentence, or the part that makes the assertion, the subject of the sentence is also called the subject (or subject-nominative) of the verb. And every verb, since it implies an assertion, must have along with it its subject, or the word showing what the assertion is about.

10. As we shall see more plainly hereafter, however long a sentence may become, it can still be divided into the same two parts : the subject being the full definition, or description, of the thing about which the assertion is made, and the predicate being the complete assertion made about it (compare II. 12).

11. As we have seen (II. 52), a sentence which is made up of one subject and one predicate, however many words either of them may contain, is called a **SIMPLE SENTENCE**. This we shall now consider, taking up afterwards (XIV.) the other kinds of sentences that are formed of simple sentences bound more or less completely into one whole.

12. A sentence is also valued as simple even when any of its less essential members, any adjunct or modification of the subject or of the predicate-verb, is compound ; or, in general, if

the subject itself is compound ; or even if the predicate-verb is compound, provided the sentence is brief and not complicated. Thus,

Friends and foes rushed together ;  
 They were lovely and pleasant in their lives ;  
 He was seen both before and after the battle ;  
 He was seen before but not after the battle ;  
 He and I went ;    The color went and came ;

may be properly valued as simple sentences with compound members. (XVII.)

13. In all those words—namely, most of the pronouns—which have, besides the possessive, two case-forms (III. 16), the nominative is alone used as the subject of a statement : thus,

I (not Me) give,                      Thou (not Thee) givest.

In practice, however, this principle is seldom violated unless the subject, being a relative or an interrogative pronoun, is separated by another clause from the rest of its own clause : thus,

The minister who (not whom) he would prove had, &c. ;  
 Who (not whom) do you think that I am ?

or unless the sentence containing a pronoun is abbreviated ; thus,

James is greater than I (not me).

14. Again, so far as the verb has different forms of person and number, the form used is of the same person and number as the subject—being, therefore, always of the third person if its subject is a noun (V. 66): thus,

I give (not gives),                      Thou goest (not go or goes).

15. This relation of subject and verb is also expressed by saying that the verb AGREES with its subject in number and person ; or that the subject GOVERNS the verb in number and person (III. 4).

16. We have, then, these first rules of syntax, which apply to all sentences, but which are the only ones that apply to a BARE sentence, a sentence composed of a verb and its subject and nothing more :

*I. A SENTENCE is composed of SUBJECT and PREDICATE ; the subject, a noun (or a word or words having the value of a noun) names that of which something is asserted ; the predicate, which is a verb, or the essential part of which is a verb, expresses that which is asserted of the subject.*

*II. The subject of the sentence (also called the subject-nominative of the verb) is in the nominative case.*



### III. *The verb agrees in person and number with its subject.*

These are the general principles, but there are special cases that need to be taken up here.

#### II.—Special Cases.

##### I.—THE SUBJECT.

##### (1) *Impersonal and Personal Forms.*

17. A verb sometimes has for its subject the pronoun *it* (VI. 26. c. and VIII. 167 and 171), not as standing for any real subject, but as helping to signify that a certain state or action is going on: thus,

It rains, It is dark, It strikes seven, It repented me,  
It was Monday night.

Such subjects are called IMPERSONAL, and, in contrast with these, other subjects are called PERSONAL.

##### (2) *Repetition of the Subject.*

18. Sometimes the notion which the subject represents is repeated:

a. Usually to show its importance to the speaker: thus,

Peace, O Virtue, peace is all thy own;  
And they crossed themselves for fear,  
All the knights at Camelot;  
Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,  
These three alone lead life to sovereign power.

b. Occasionally, for clearness, to recall it to memory when at some distance from the verb: thus,

The feeling that this was really Samuel Weller who was  
before me, and Sergeant Buzfuz, and Mr. Pickwick, and each  
personage of the story in succession—this feeling came over me  
with a thrill of delight, such as the best reading of the greatest  
actor could not have given me.

Such constructions shade off into those in which the word representing the repeated notion is a real appositive.

##### (3) *The Anacoluthic Subject.*

19. Occasionally, when the speaker's attention is attracted by some notion, he begins a sentence with this notion as subject, but finishes the sentence with another subject, thus changing the construction in the same sentence. For example:

My noble father, three times to-day I help him to his horse;  
But he, the chieftain of them all,  
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

This is known as the ANACOLUTHIC subject (the term means "lacking sequence or connection").

The use of *it* as a representative subject has already been fully dealt with (VI. 26. a).

The omission of the subject will be taken up in connection with the abbreviated and incomplete sentence (XVIII.).

## II.—THE PREDICATE.

20. In deciding the number of the verb, we must consider the meaning, not the form, of the subject: a verb is regularly construed according to the meaning of the subject (V. 13), whatever be its form. The following applications of this principle require to be noticed:

### (1) *When the Reference is to one Subject.*

a. The verb is plural when used with a collective noun in the singular (V. 12), when we have in mind the separate individuals composing the collection: thus,

A half of them are gone; The nobility of Rome are his;  
The happy pair go hand in hand;  
The crowd throng the street.

b. The verb is singular when, although the form of the subject is plural, the meaning is singular: thus,

Two-thirds of this is mine by right;  
With Thee a thousand years is as one day;  
Johnson's "Lives" was published before his death.

See also V. 42, 44, and 45.

### (2) *When the Reference is to more than one Subject.*

a. First, as to number:

(a) The verb is plural when the subjects, even if singular, are felt to be combined into one: thus,

His father and brothers were long dead;  
Horror and doubt distract his troubled mind.

So, too, when the conjunction is omitted: thus,

Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed;

and when, though there are really more than one subject, the singular subject is expressed but once: thus,

My quarrel and the English Queen's are one;  
The Second and the Third Epistle of John contain each a single chapter.

When, to a singular subject, another notion is added by means of the preposition *with*, and the meaning is markedly plural, some authorities make the verb plural: thus,

The king *with* the lords and commons constitute the government.

But, though this may be defended as a "sense construction" (V. 13), the more approved usage is to substitute *and* for *with* in such sentences.

(b) But the verb is singular when

(1) The singular subjects represent but one notion (compare 20. (1) b. above): thus,

Brandy and water is his favorite beverage;  
Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;  
The saint, the father, and the husband prays.

(2) The logical subject is distributed: thus,

Every limb and feature appears with its appropriate grace.

So, too, when the subjects are taken alternately, the verb is singular if the subjects are singular; otherwise it is plural, and, to avoid awkwardness, the plural subject, if there is one, is put next the verb: thus,

Neither the one nor the other appears to have understood;  
Never has my heart or ear hung on so sweet, so pure a strain;  
The king or his soldiers have done the deed.

And the co-ordination is, in effect, of the same nature in

To spread suspicion, to invent calumnies, requires no courage;  
No part of their substance, and no one of their properties,  
is the same;

Not enjoyment and not sorrow is our destined end or way,

(3) The attention is attracted first or specially to the singular subject, which is next the verb: thus,

Her knights, her dames, her court is there;  
Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,  
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress, etc.;  
Care only wakes and moping pensiveness.

(4) The attention is attracted to the leading subject, which is singular: thus,

Asia, as well as Europe, was dazzled by his power;  
The oldest, as well as the newest, wine begins to stir itself;  
His brother, as well as his father and mother, looks on with pity;  
Somewhat, and in some cases a great deal, is laid upon us;

**The king, but not his councillors, was present ;  
Our own heart, and not other men's opinions, forms our true  
honor.**

In these examples we have a more distinct suggestion of an omitted predicate.

The construction in (3) above is especially known as **ATTRACTION**.

b. Secondly, as to person :

When two or more subjects are of different persons, the verb agrees with the most important (the one which most attracts the attention), that is, with the first in preference to the others, and with the second in preference to the third. Since, however, there are no plural inflections for person, the verbal form can show this agreement in the singular only. Examples are

**Either he or I am right ;  
Neither he nor thou art right.**

Sometimes, also, the verb refers to the subject next it : thus,

**Neither you nor he is right.**

But, as both of these constructions are felt to be awkward, modern usage prefers in such cases to express the predicate with each subject : thus,

**Either he is right or I am ; and Neither are you right nor is he.**

In Old English, and even in Chaucer, we find the verb referred to the predicate pronoun, and not to the subject : thus,

**It am I.**

21. The preceding rules for the agreement of the predicate with the subject are those approved by modern usage ; but, in older and, to some extent, in modern English, a variety of usage prevails.

## COMPLEMENTS OF THE BARE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

22. We have next to consider how the simple and necessary frame-work of the sentence—the bare noun or pronoun, and the bare verb—is extended and filled out, so as to let us express more, or express ourselves with greater definiteness, in a single sentence.

### I.—Incomplete Predicates.

23. Many verbs are not in themselves complete as predicates ; we almost never put them alone with a subject ; when so put, they do not make a sentence that seems to have a full meaning ; we wait for something more to be added.

## I.—PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

24. One class of these words is made up of such as call for something more to be added relating to the subject and further describing it (VII. 3): thus,

I am . . . . ;	We were . . . . ;
They seem . . . . ;	The man looked . . . .

We may complete such statements by adding a noun or an adjective: thus,

I am poor;	We were brothers;
They seem hungry;	The man looked tired.

25. A word thus used is called a PREDICATE NOUN or a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE; or, the noun or the adjective is said to be used predicatively.

This is because it, in a manner, completes the predication or assertion made by the verb; it describes the subject, being made part of the assertion respecting the latter; it does so by the help of the verb, which brings it into connection with the subject.

26. The number of verbs thus taking a predicate adjective or noun is not a very large one. They are sometimes called VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION. Such are:

a. The verb *be*: thus,

I am ill;      You are a scholar;      They will be tired;  
He was angry; She was the heroine; They have been soldiers.

This is by far the commonest of the whole class. The verb *be*, in its various forms and verb-phrases, has come to be used almost entirely as a mere connective of assertion between a subject and some word or words describing that subject; and, when thus used, to have no meaning of its own except that of signifying the assertion.

The verb *be* is sometimes distinguished as the COPULA (that is "coupler"), because it *couples* together two words in the relation of subject and predicate; but this distinction, though of importance in Logic, is of little importance in Grammar.

b. *Become*, with its near equivalents *grow*, *get*, *turn* and the like: thus,

I became ill;      His face grew black;      It turned cold.

c. *Remain*, *continue*, *stay*, and the like: thus,

John remained silent;      He continues grateful.

d. Seem, appear, look, and the like: thus,

She seems a goddess;      It looks terrible.

e. Sound, smell, feel, and the like: thus,

We feel outraged;      It smells sweet.

f. Verbs of state and motion, like stand, sit, go, move, and so on: thus,

The door stands open;      My blood runs cold;

They sat mute;      He will go mad;      He ran foul of me.

g. The passives of verbs which take an objective predicate (see below, 49.): thus,

He was made angry;      They are called cannibals.

27. The predicate use of the adjective shades off into an adverbial construction, and the two are not always to be readily or clearly distinguished from each other. Their distinction depends on the degree to which the added word is intended to qualify the subject on the one hand, or the action of the verb itself on the other. Thus, we may say

We feel warm,      It is buried deep,

when we mean "feel ourselves to be warm," "buried so as to be deep"; or we may say

We feel warmly,      It is buried deeply,

when we mean that the feeling is a warm one, that the burying was a deep one. And in

He looks well,

we understand well to be predicate adjective when the sense is "he looks in good health, he appears as if he were well"; but adverb if the sense is "he is good-looking." But in

He sits next,

next may be understood in either way without any important difference.

Again, we say of a fruit,

It looks ripe,      It feels ripe,      It smells ripe,      It tastes ripe;

because the meaning is that in these various ways we judge it actually to be ripe. Other examples are

The girl looks pretty;      The rose smells sweet;      The wine tastes sour.

28. With the verbs of state and motion (26. f. above), especially, the qualifying force of the predicate adjective is very often really distributed between the subject and the verb. Thus, in

He stands firm,

we mean not only that he is firm in his standing, but also that the standing itself is firm. So, also, in

The sun shines bright;      The messenger comes running;

The tone rings clear and full.



An adjective thus used may be distinguished as an ADVERBIAL PREDICATE adjective.

The predicate adjective, especially the adverbial predicate, shades off into a construction in which its value resembles that of an appositive adjective: thus,

He went home no wiser; The furrow followed free.

So, too, with the predicate noun: thus,

Socrates lived a philosopher, and died a hero.

29. An inflected word in the predicate (except a predicate possessive, XIII. 67) ought, since it describes the subject, to be in the same case with it; and this rule is generally observed in English—that is to say, in the pronouns, the only words which distinguish nominative and objective. Thus, we say

It is I; It was we; If it were she;

and so on. Careless and inaccurate speakers, however, often use such expressions as

It is them; It was us; If it were her;

and; in the case of

It is me,

the practice has become so common that it is even regarded as good English by respectable authorities (VI. 11).

30. The expressions

It is I, It is he,

and so on, are not found in literature before the fifteenth century. Until then the idiom was the Old English one: thus,

*Ic eom hit* (i.e. "I am it"), and so on.

Since the Elizabethan period, the irregular constructions given in 29 above have been used even by the best writers.

31. We have then the definition:

IV. *A predicate adjective or noun is one which is brought by a verb into relation with its subject, as modifying that subject;*

and the rule:

V. *A predicate pronoun regularly agrees in case with the subject it describes.*

## II.—OBJECT OF THE VERB.

### (1) Direct.

32. A very much larger class of verbs than those spoken of above are incomplete in another way—namely, as they call for

the addition of a word to express some thing on which the action they signify is exerted. Thus, for example,

**I fold . . . ; She tells . . . ; The man wrote . . . ;**  
 where we expect an addition telling what is folded, or told, or written; and the sense is made complete in some such way as this:

**I fold the paper; She tells a story; The man wrote a letter.**

Such an added word is always a name of something, a noun (or else a pronoun or other equivalent of a noun); and it is called the object of the verb, because it signifies that at which the action of the verb is directed.

The verb that takes such an object to complete its meaning is called TRANSITIVE, because its action, instead of being merely asserted of the subject, "passes over," and affects the object.

33. When we use a pronoun in this way—thus,

**I strike him; They saw us—**

the case in which the object is put is the objective: indeed, this case is so named as being especially that belonging to the object of the verb.

Hence, as we have already seen (III. 15), we say that a transitive verb governs the objective case; that is, its object is compelled to be of that case.

34. Verbs, which are ordinarily called transitive, may in English, almost without exception, be used without any expressed object, that is intransitively: thus,

a. When they signify simply the doing of an act, without taking into account whom or what it is done to: thus,

**I love; You speak; Seek, fire, kill.**

A special case is that in which the object, if expressed, would represent the same notion as the subject, the verb thus acquiring a reflexive meaning: thus,

**He stopped and then turned; Meanwhile he prepared for an attack.**

b. When the subject of the verb really names the object of the act: thus,

**The cakes at tea ate short and crisp;  
 Drink from the goblet while it fills;  
 A great experiment was making.**

See also VIII. 170 and 156.

36. On the other hand, there are verbs which do not properly take after them such an object: thus, for example,

**Sit, fall, run, lie.**

We may sit *on* something, fall *from* something, run *over* some one, and so on; but we do not usually sit anyone or anything. Such verbs are called **INTRANSITIVES**.

They are also sometimes called **NEUTER**; but this term belongs to the division into active, passive, and neuter; and in English we have no passive verbs, but only passive verb-phrases: all our verbs are "active," and, therefore, no one of them needs to be defined as such.

37. But even some intransitive verbs take an object in certain peculiar constructions. Thus:

a. An object expressing in noun-form the action, or a variety of the action, expressed by the verb itself: as,

He has lived a long life;	I slept a deep sleep;
They ran their race;	You will dance a jig;
Let me die the death of the righteous;	
Death grinned horrible a ghastly smile;	
From them I go this uncouth errand.	

So, too, in such constructions as

**Grace me no grace nor uncle me no uncle.**

Here the result of the act is made the object of the verb. This is called a **COGNATE** object: that is, one "allied" or "related" in meaning to the verb itself.

In such sentences as

**He looked daggers at me;  
The realm itself yawns dungeons at every step;**

the objects are also cognate, being nouns used in a metaphorical sense. Such objects, especially the last, are very near our ordinary conception of adverbial modifiers of the verb. See 47 below.

Akin to the cognate object is the peculiar construction in

**I have been many voyages.**

b. An indefinite or impersonal object it (VI. 26. d) in such phrases as  
**They frolic it along; She coquettes it with every fellow she sees.**

This construction is allied to the preceding one. The result of the act is intimated, though in the impersonal form.

c. An object with a verb that is taken in the sense of producing a certain effect by the act which it expresses: thus,

He trotted his horse;	He walked his horse;
He ran the engine;	He marched his men.

Compare VIII. 5. a.

Of the same nature are the following constructions :

He rained shells and red hot bullets on the city;  
At the base of Pompey's statue, which all the while ran blood.

d. Occasionally, a reflexive (VIII. 165) object : as,

She went and sat her down over against him; Stand thee close, then.

This construction is really of the same nature as the preceding one.

e. Occasionally an object which, though only mediately affected by the act, is apparently a direct objective : thus,

He sat his horse well; There is not a ship that sails the ocean,  
While thou foughtest the Christian cause.

Such constructions shade off into others in which the objective is more markedly adverbial. See below, 73 and 75.

37. The kind of object we have thus far considered is also called a DIRECT object, because its relation to the "governing" verb is so close and immediate as not to admit of an auxiliary word, as a preposition, to define it.

## (2) Double ; Direct and Indirect.

38. Some verbs, however, take along with such a direct object, another of a different character, in a relation which we more usually express by *to* or *for* : thus,

He gave me the book; They made the man a coat.

In the first sentence, *me* points out *to* whom the act of giving the book was done; in the second, *man* shows *for* whom the act of making the coat was performed. This appears clearly enough when we change the place of the words in question, putting them after the direct object. We are then obliged to use prepositions : thus,

He gave the book to me; They made a coat for the man.

Other examples are

He means us no good; We forgive our friends their faults;  
He paid the man his wages; You answered me the question;  
He taught his sister music.

Here belongs also the ETHICAL dative, so called because the matter spoken of is regarded with *interest* (the Gr. root word *ethos*, in this connection, means "interest") by the person concerned : thus,

Knock me at this gate, and rap me well;

A terrible dragon of a woman claps you an iron cap on her head.

In older English, even from the earliest times, this construction was much used in the language of common life : it is now almost obsolete.

39. Such a second object, then, is called an **INDIRECT** object, because it represents what is less directly affected by the action of the verb, and because the same relation may be, and often is, expressed by prepositions—namely, by **to** or, more rarely, by **for**. But, although we may use **to** and **for** in expressing the relation of the indirect object, we must not make the mistake of supposing that a **to** or **for** is left out, and to be “understood” as expressed along with the object itself, any more than that of is left out with **John’s**, because, instead of it, we may say of **John**. The case is not, indeed, like the possessive, now distinguished by an ending of its own ; but it was so formerly.

40. An original dative in an obscured form has been preserved in the case of **nigh**, **near**, **nearer**, **next**, **like** and **unlike**, both in adjective and adverbial use : thus,

He was near falling ;  
A man like few others ;

She sits next me ;  
He drives like Jehu.

Another relic of this case is still sometimes found with the interjection **woe**, used as a substantive : thus,

Woe me ! Woe the day ! Woe the while ! Woe is me !  
Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day,  
That cost thy life, my gallant grey !

So, too, with **well**, in the archaic

O well is thee !

41. The indirect object, like the direct, is put in the objective case. But the objective in this use is to be called the **INDIRECT OBJECTIVE**. It is regularly put, in the sentence, between the verb and the direct object, the case of which is in turn called the **DIRECT OBJECTIVE**.

42. When a verb, which in the active conjugation takes both a direct and an indirect object, becomes passive, its direct object regularly becomes its subject, and its indirect object remains after the verb, sometimes with, and sometimes without, a preposition to show its relation : thus,

A book was given me (or to me) ;  
His wages were paid the man (or to the man).

Owing, however, to the indirect and direct objectives being of the same form, and to the greater importance usually attached to the person affected by the act, the indirect object is very

often, and with some verbs is always, made the subject, the direct object remaining after the verb: thus,

**I was given a book; The man was paid his wages;**

**I was taught music; Our friends are forgiven their faults;**

and so on. See also VIII. 162 and 163.

*(3) Peculiar Single Objective Constructions.*

43. Some verbs, like **pay**, **forgive**, and **teach**, often take their indirect object alone, as well as their direct: thus, either, with direct object,

**He paid the wages; We forgive the faults;**

**He taught music;**

or, with indirect,

**He paid the man; We forgive our friends;**

**He taught his sister.**

Either object, when thus used alone, is apt to seem to us a direct one; and it is only when we come to put them together that we see their true relation.

For this reason and on the analogy of Latin and Greek (in which the verb meaning "teach" is followed by two accusatives), the verb **teach** is by some grammarians classed under 45 below; but it is properly placed here, for in old English it takes a dative and an accusative, and even now the object of the person (compare 46 below) sometimes takes to: thus,

**He taught geography to his brother.**

44. And not a few verbs which were formerly intransitive, taking a dative, or a genitive, or a prepositional phrase, are now reckoned by us as only transitive. Examples are

**earn, heed, follow, trust; applaud, renounce, resist, pardon, obey.**

For examples of impersonal verbs similarly used, see VII. 167.

*(4) Peculiar Double Objective Constructions.*

45. Some verbs, however, which govern a direct object of the *person*, are also followed by the object of the *thing* affected or produced by the act: thus,

**John struck me a blow; She heard me my lessons;**

**He led him the life of a dog; Jane took her a walk.**

And when one of these objects becomes the subject of the passive form, the other remains in the objective after the verb. Thus, we say

**I was heard my lessons and My lessons were heard me.**



Such a sentence as

We banish you our territories,

shows that this construction shades off into one in which the object of the thing is clearly adverbial.

46. Owing to the absence of case inflections, one of the two direct objects sometimes admits of being valued as indirect: thus, in

I asked him his name,

him, which, like name, is properly a direct object, may be valued as indirect in a relation expressed by of; for, though we say

I asked him his name,

we usually say

I asked a favor of him.

In older English we find a like construction, with other verbs expressing the notion of asking. Examples are

Demand me nothing;      Let me request thee this;

She prayed me oft forbearance.

### III.—THE TRUE NATURE OF VERB-OBJECTS.

47. Although grammarians make a distinction between the objects and the adverbial complements of the verb, the former are really adverbial also: thus, in

I gave him a book and I go home,

him, book, and home limit the meaning of the verbs in their respective sentences. The general function is the same; the species is different, book and him indicating respectively the objects directly and indirectly affected by the act, and home indicating the limit of the motion.

48. We have, then, the following:

**VI.** *A TRANSITIVE verb takes a DIRECT object, expressing that which is immediately affected by the act expressed by the verb; and sometimes also an INDIRECT object, usually expressing that TO or FOR which the act is performed.*

**VII.** *The object of a verb, whether direct or indirect, is in the OBJECTIVE case, the direct being called a DIRECT objective, and the indirect an INDIRECT objective.*

### IV.—OBJECTIVE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

49. We have seen above that a predicate adjective or noun is one which, being added to a verb, forms part of the predication or assertion about the subject of the verb; one that is made, through the verb, to modify the subject.

Now it is sometimes also the case that an adjective or a noun is, through the verb, brought into a like relation to the direct object, as modifying that object. Thus, in

**He made the stick straight,**

the adjective **straight** qualifies the object **stick**, by becoming a kind of addition to the verb **made**, defining the nature of the action exerted on **stick**, as if we said

**He made-straight the stick,**

And we do say instead, using a derivative verb,

**He straightened the stick,**

where the adjective is, as it were, taken into the verb, and becomes a part of the assertion made by the verb alone. (Occasionally also, as in **white-wash**, the adjective forms part of a compound verb.)

Then, if we turn the construction into a passive one, making the former object **stick** the subject, **straight** becomes an ordinary predicate adjective qualifying it: thus,

**The stick was made straight.**

So, too, in

**She wrings the clothes dry,**

the meaning is "makes-dry-by-wringing the clothes," the adjective, again, being, as it were, taken into the verb, and becoming part of the assertion made by the verb.

Then, as before, if we turn the construction into a passive one, making the former object **clothes** the subject, **dry** becomes an ordinary predicate adjective qualifying it.

Other examples of this construction are

<b>I sang my throat hoarse;</b>	<b>The lightning struck him dead;</b>
<b>He held the reins tight;</b>	<b>They planed the board smooth;</b>
<b>They chose her queen;</b>	<b>She carries her head high.</b>

And a verb is especially often used thus when it is also used reflexively: thus,

<b>They sang themselves hoarse;</b>	<b>He wept himself blind;</b>
<b>She washed herself clean;</b>	<b>He rubbed himself dry.</b>

Since, in these sentences, the straightness of the stick, the dryness of the clothes, the hoarseness of my throat, and so on, are the results of the acts expressed by **made**, **sing**, and so on; these verbs are said to be used in a *factive* sense; that is, in

the sense of "making" or causing or bringing about something by means of the act which the verb signifies.

And the adjective or the noun thus made by the verb to qualify the object, is called a **FACTITIVE OBJECTIVE PREDICATE** adjective or noun.

50. This construction, however, shades off into one in which an adjective or a noun is made by the verb to modify its object without, however, expressing the result of the act, or entering into the assertion made by the verb alone. Thus, if we compare

**He drove the man insane**

with

**He believed the man insane,**

we see that, though, in both these sentences, the predication is incomplete without the adjective **insane**; in the latter, the insanity is not the result of the act expressed by the verb, nor is the assertion that he believed insane the man; whereas, in the former, the insanity is the result of this act, and the assertion is that he drove insane the man. Other examples are

**I beheld him a captive;      I hold it true;**  
**He found the man honest;    He imagined me his enemy;**  
**I consider him liberal;        He pronounced me guilty.**

To these, as in 49 above, the corresponding passives are

**The man was believed insane;    He was beheld a captive;**  
**The man was found honest;      It is held true;**

and so on.

As is shown by such sentences as

**He saw the man running;      He ate his dinner cold;**

this construction, in turn, shades off into one in which the adjective or the noun approaches the value of an appositive; and in

**He came in with his hands dirty,**

the appositive adjective **dirty** is related to hands in the same way as the objective predicate adjective is related to the direct object.

51. In both the preceding constructions, a prepositional phrase is sometimes found instead of the objective predicate: thus,

**Know thou me for thy liege lord;    I designed thee for Richelieu's murderer;**  
**We have Abraham to our father;    I have a king here to my flatterer.**

Sometimes, also, the objective predicate takes as for a connective: thus.

**Rome held him and his traitors as rebels;**  
**He was left as ruler;                  He was appointed as king;**

but in many such examples the **as** is wholly pleonastic. See also XVII.

52. In languages which distinguish the objective case throughout from the nominative by a different form, the predicate adjective or noun would, of course, be in the objective, as the other predicate adjective or noun (sometimes called **SUBJECTIVE**, for distinction's sake) is in the nominative; but an instance of such agreement cannot occur in English, except in the case of a personal pronoun after an infinitive: thus,

I knew it to be him.

53. We may sum up thus :

**VIII.** *An adjective or a noun is called OBJECTIVE PREDICATE when it is brought by the verb into relation with the direct object, as modifying that object; and it is especially known as FACTITIVE when it comes after a factitive verb.*

## II.—Adjective Complements.

### I.—ATTRIBUTIVE AND APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE AND APPOSITIVE NOUN.

54. We have thus far seen that a noun may come to be modified by an adjective or a noun used predicatively: that is, in the way of an assertion that a quality or state or character or office, or the like, belongs to it—a relation which needs a word of assertion, a verb, to bring it about.

55. But an adjective also, and much oftener, modifies a noun more directly, being simply added to the noun to describe it; the quality and so on is not asserted, but only mentioned, as belonging to that which the noun expresses. Thus, in

This man is old,

we make the age the thing which we assert; but in

This old man,

we make it part of the description of the person, about whom we may then go on to make an assertion: as,

This old man has white hair;

where we use another adjective to describe also the object hair.

56. An adjective thus used to describe a noun without being part of the assertion or predication made about it is called an **ATTRIBUTE**, or an **ATTRIBUTIVE** adjective, or is said to be used **ATTRIBUTIVELY** (*attributive* means simply “ascribed” or “attached”).

While a predicative adjective modifies only the subject or the direct object of a verb. an attributive adjective may modify

a noun in any situation whatever and is generally put before the noun.

For the logical (not grammatical) distinction between the purely descriptive and the restrictive or limiting use of the attributive adjective, see VII. 1-3 and 59. d.

57. A noun is, much less often, used to describe another noun in a way somewhat similar to this. Thus, in

My friend the hunter carries his weapon, a rifle, on  
his shoulder,

we have the nouns **friend** and **weapon** limited or described by the addition of **hunter** and **rifle**. There are implied in the sentence the two assertions that

My friend is a hunter, and His weapon is a rifle;  
but they are only implied, not actually made.

A noun thus used is called **APPOSITIVE**, or is said to be in **APPPOSITION** with the other noun.

This means "in position by the side of," or "set alongside"; because the appositive noun seems less closely connected with the noun which it describes, less dependent on it, than the attributive adjective; it is, rather, an independent word, added to the other for the purpose of further describing the same thing.

Sentences and members of sentences are sometimes followed by an appositive noun, which answers to a predicate nominative: thus,

Ye are not content with your estate, a fancy to be plucked out of you;  
His daughter had much talent, a circumstance liable to mislead.

58. But an adjective is also often joined to a noun in a looser and more indirect way, so much like that of the appositive noun that it is also to be called an **APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE**. Examples are

For these reasons, avowed and secret;  
All poetry, ancient or modern;  
Young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling  
of the house;

where the shade of meaning is a little different from what it would be in

For these avowed and secret reasons;  
All ancient or modern poetry;  
The young, handsome. and clever page.

We have, namely, in the appositive adjective a more distinct suggestion of an added clause, of which the adjective would be the predicate—as if, for example, we said

**Since he was young, handsome, and clever, the page was, etc.**

Yet, as we have seen already (VI. 49), the attributive adjective also may always be turned into the predicate of a descriptive clause. And it is quite impossible to draw a distinct line between the attributive and the appositive use of the adjective. If we make the description at all complicated by adding modifiers to the adjective, we may not put the adjective in the usual place of an attribute, close before the noun, but must separate it, like an appositive, from the noun. Thus, we say

**His ruddy countenance;    The loveliest vale;**

but

**His countenance, ruddy with the hue of youth;  
A vale, loveliest of all vales on earth;**

or

**Ruddy with the hue of youth, his countenance was pleasant to look upon;  
and so on.**

Hence, as the participles have modifiers added to them much more freely than ordinary adjectives, the participles are especially used in appositive construction. See XV.

A pronoun, which almost never takes an attributive adjective before it, like a noun, has an appositive adjective or noun added to it just as freely as a noun: thus,

**We, poor in friends, sought love;    They ran off laughing;  
Tired and hungry, he hastened home;  
You Frenchmen are livelier than we English.**

And we sometimes, though rarely, find a pronoun put in apposition with a noun: thus

**I got it from James, him that, etc.**

59. On the other hand, a noun is now and then used in the manner of an attributive adjective: thus,

**My hunter friend;    Her soldier cousin;    The drummer boy.**

We may properly call such a noun attributive; or we may say that it is used with the value of an attributive adjective. Compound nouns (V. 30. b.) sometimes grow out of this combination.

60. We have, then, the definitions:

**IX.** *An adjective modifying a noun directly (not through a verb) is called ATTRIBUTIVE—or, if more loosely connected with the noun, it is called APPOSITIVE.*



**X.** *A noun added to another noun, by way of further description of the same object, is said to be IN APPPOSITION with that noun.*

That an appositive adjective or noun also modifies a pronoun has been explained above.

61. In languages which inflect their adjectives, and inflect their nouns more fully, attributive and appositive words are regularly made to *agree* in case, or in number and case, with the nouns (or pronouns) which they modify. But no such agreement is possible with the English adjective, because it is wholly uninflected (with the exception of *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*: see III. 20); and it is only imperfectly made in the possessive case of the appositive noun. We are allowed to say, indeed,

The rifle is my friend's, the hunter's;

but the expression seems awkward to us, and we prefer to say the same thing in some other way: as,

It belongs to my friend, the hunter.

Or, we put the sign of the possessive case only on the last noun (see V. 62): thus,

My friend the hunter's rifle.

As, also, the appositive pronoun (58, above) is very rarely used, it is, therefore, useless to add any general rule about agreement.

## II.—POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

62. We have seen (III. 12-14) that English nouns and pronouns have an inflectional form which is usually called possessive, because it is especially used, in connection with another noun, to point out the possessor of whatever that noun signifies. For example, if a book has John for its owner, we call it *John's book*; a crown belonging to the king is the *king's crown*; and, in a more figurative way, the doings that belong to a certain day are called that *day's doings*. If a man has debts, we call them *his debts*; the act performed by him is *his act*; the faults he has committed are *his faults*; and so on.

63. The *possessive* use of this case, its use as a genitive of *possession* or appurtenance (taking these words in a somewhat wide and loose sense), is by far the most common of all in English; but there are two or three others which call for notice.

a. If the modified noun signifies some action or condition of which, if it were expressed by a verb, the noun in the possessive would be the *subject*, the case is called a *SUBJECTIVE* possessive. Thus, in

A mother's love;      Troy's fall;      The bugle's sound;  
Cæsar's passage of the Rubicon;

is implied that

The mother loves;    Troy has fallen;    The bugle sounds;  
Cæsar passed the Rubicon.

b. If, on the other hand, the possessive would be the *object* of the action expressed by the other noun in verb-form, we call it an OBJECTIVE possessive. Thus, in

**Earth's creator;            Sin's rebuke;            His murder;**

it is implied that some one

**Created earth;            Rebuked sin;            Murdered him.**

The objective possessive is much less common in English than the subjective.

c. Once more, if the relation of the two nouns is logically that of *apposition*, and might also be so expressed, the case is called an APPOSITIVE possessive: thus,

**Britain's isle;            Numidia's spacious kingdom.**

The appositive possessive is now almost obsolete, but it occurs sometimes in poetry. It is analogous to appositive adjective phrases with *of* in such constructions as

**The city of London,            The continent of America.**

64. In this way, a noun in its possessive case-form becomes a modifying addition to another noun, much as if it were an attributive adjective. Often we can put an adjective in place of the possessive, with little or no difference of meaning: thus, **The king's crown; The day's doings; Man's imperfections;** may also be described as

**The royal crown; The daily doings; Human imperfections.**

And we saw above (VI. 9, 18, and 35, and VII. 29 and 30) that the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, and of demonstrative pronouns of the third person, especially, are not to be sharply distinguished from adjectives.

65. Though the English possessive is the genitive of older English and of the other related languages, it is peculiar in this respect: that whereas the genitive was used also with verbs and adjectives, or adverbially, our present possessive has only an adjective value, or is used *adnominally*—that is, as “added to a noun,” or modifying a noun. See also V. 52-60.

66. The possessive is said to be *dependent on* the noun which it describes, or to be *governed* by it: that is to say, the modifying noun is, as it were, *required* or compelled by its relation to the other to take the possessive case-form.

67. The possessive, with the noun on which it is dependent omitted, is also used in the various other constructions of the adjective: thus, as simple predicate,

**The book is John's;    That crown is the king's.**

as objective predicate,

I made the book his :

in apposition,

**That crown, the king's, is set with jewels.**

Also, like an adjective used as a noun : thus,

He and his are all well; John's book lies by Harry's.

And the possessive, standing for "such a one's property or belongings," has come to be used with a preceding *of*, in the sense of "belonging to such a one," being put, like an appositive adjective, after the noun it qualifies: thus,

This boy is a friend of mine;      A servant of my brother's;  
That wife of his:

that is, "a friend belonging to me," and so on.

This idiom is an old one, being found in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries: thus,

*I call myself a servant of youres.*—PASTON LETTERS (1462);  
*A seyalles ("seal") of sylver of the brotherredyis.*—ENGLISH GILDS (1504).

68. Thus, we have the rule :

**XI.** *The POSSESSIVE case of a noun (or pronoun) is used to modify another noun, in the manner of an adjective.*

### III.—Adverbial Complements.

### I.—ADVERBS.

69. As the adjective is the usual modifier of the noun, so the adverb is the usual modifier of the other member of the simple sentence, the verb.

Adverbs modify verbs in all their variety of meaning, but without any difference of relation (like that of the predicative and attributive relation in the adjective) which is of importance enough to be distinguished and defined.

70. Adverbs, as we have already seen (IX. 1-3), modify also adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs. There are cases, also, in which an adverb modifies a preposition, and occasionally adverbs seem to modify even nouns, pronouns, and sentences (IX. 9-11).

71. An adverb has very often the value of a predicate adjective, usually with some part of the verb **be**: for example,

The sun is down, the moon is up, and the stars are all out;  
He was there, but you were away.

And the adverb **so** is much used as substitute for adjectives, as well as for other parts of speech, to avoid repetition (**VI. 33** and **XVII.** ): thus,

**His step was light, for his heart was so.**

Less often, an adverb is used as an appositive adjective: thus,  
**Ask at the house next above ; The wall within, and that without ;**  
**My stay there will be short ;**

The last example shows that this use of the adverb shades off into that in which it modifies the quality implied in the noun. See also **IX. 10**

Sometimes (and less properly), an adverb is used even as an attributive adjective: thus,

**The above passage ; The then ruler ;**  
**My sometime friend, His almost impudence of manner.**

As to the use of an adverb with the value of a noun, as object of a preposition, see **X. 5.**

**72.** We have, then, the rules :

**XII.** *An ADVERB modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

**XIII.** *An adverb is sometimes used with the value of an adjective, especially of a predicate adjective ; sometimes, also, with the value of a noun after a preposition.*

## II.—ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

**73.** While, as we have seen, our noun has a special case form, the possessive, for adjective use, or as modifying a noun, it is sometimes used, without any special case-form, in the manner of an adverb: that is to say, to modify a verb or an adjective or even an adverb. Examples are

a. With verbs :

**They walked a mile ; He sat an hour ;**  
**Our friend died last night ; It fell a long distance ;**  
**It faces both ways.**

b. With adjectives :

**The river is a mile broad here ;**  
**A sermon two hours long ; He is ten years old ;**  
**A field three acres larger than another.**

c. With adverbs :

**He lives a long distance off ;**  
**They watched all night long ;**

His house is a great deal better built ;  
It will be all the same a hundred years hence.

In all night long, however, it is proper also, on historical grounds, to value long as an adjective modifying night.

In such constructions as

He will go this day week ;

this day corresponds to hence in the last example above, the meaning being

He will go in a week from this day.

74. As we do not use the pronouns in this way, and as our nouns never have different forms in the nominative and objective, there is nothing in our present language to show that the case thus used is really the objective. But this appears from the usage in older English and in other languages ; and we might also infer it from the fact that we often use a preposition to connect such a noun with the word which it qualifies : thus,

He sat for an hour ;      It faces in both directions ;  
larger by three acres.

We may best call this use of the noun, therefore, an ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE : that is, an objective case used with the value of an adverb.

75. It is plain enough that, for example, in

He walked a mile,

the noun *mile* is in no proper sense the object of the verb *walked*, and that the verb is intransitive, as usual.

Yet, in such sentences, the adverbial object sometimes so far assumes the character of an object that we turn it into the subject of a passive phrase (as we sometimes do an indirect object also : see VIII. 163) : thus,

The mile was walked by him in twelve minutes.

We may distinguish a word thus used by calling it an ADVERBIAL OBJECT.

76. The modern adverbial objective represents different O. E. case-forms : thus,

The heaven was shut three years and six months,  
is in Old English

*Seó heofon wæs belocen thréo gér (acc.) and syx mónathas (acc.) ;*

and

Sixpence worth, an inch long, three hands higher, bound hand and foot,  
are

*Sex peniga (gen.) wyrthe, ánes ynces (gen.) lang, thrum (or thrym) handum*  
*(instr.) hýrra, gebund handum and fótum (instr.).*

77. The adverbial objective is used especially to express *measure*; whether duration of time, or extent of distance or space, or weight, or number, or age, or value, and the like. But it also expresses the *time* at which anything happened; and much more rarely, *manner*, as in

**Have it your own way; He was bound hand and foot;  
Old John of Gaunt hath sent post-haste; He came full speed.**

Now and then, such an objective is added to a noun, with an adjective value: thus,

**my dream last night; his adventures this day.**

Compare the adjective use of the adverb, 71 above.

78. We have then the rule:

**XIV.** *A noun expressing measure, time, or manner is sometimes used in the OBJECTIVE case with an ADVERBIAL value, or to modify a verb or an adjective or an adverb.*

### III.—NOUNS USED ABSOLUTELY.

79. There is yet another way in which a noun (or pronoun) is sometimes made to describe or modify something in a sentence, without having its relation to what it modifies denoted either by a case-form or by a connecting word. Thus we say

**He lay down, his heart heavy with sorrow;  
He flies, wild terror in his look;  
They charged, sword in hand and visor down;  
The mountain rose, height above height;  
They sit side by side.**

A word thus used always has added to it an appositive adjective or a word or a phrase of some kind (an adverb, a prepositional phrase, etc.) having the same value. And the two together answer the purpose of an accompanying trait or circumstance added to the sentence (generally in the manner of an adverbial predicate: see 28 above). It is as if *with* or *having*, or a conjunction and the verb *be*, or something of the kind, which might have been used, were omitted: thus,

**He lay down, having a heart heavy, etc.;**  
or **He lay down, while his heart was heavy, etc.;**  
**He flies with wild terror in his look;**  
or **He flies, and wild terror is in his look.**

80. Such a word is said to be used **ABSOLUTELY**, or to be in **ABSOLUTE** construction, because it appears to stand as if “cut



loose" from the sentence to which it belongs, the usual sign of relation to the words it modifies being wanting.

The absolute construction is especially common with a participle modifying the noun or pronoun; and the construction of the pronoun, which is very rare except with a participle, shows that the case now used is regularly the nominative. See **XV**.

81. Thus we have the rule:

**XV.** *A noun or pronoun, along with an appositive adjective or its equivalent, is sometimes used in the nominative case ABSOLUTELY, in the manner of an adverb, to express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action.*

#### **IV.—Prepositional Adjective and Adverb Phrases.**

82. A preposition we have seen (**X. 1-6**) to be a connecting word by means of which a noun or a pronoun is attached to another word, and made to modify it in some way which the preposition defines. And the noun or the pronoun thus attached to another word by the preposition is called the **OBJECT** of the preposition, or is said to be **GOVERNED BY OR DEPENDENT** on it, and is put in the objective case.

83. The relations expressed by the prepositions are most like those expressed by the cases of the noun: thus, the relation of the indirect-objective may almost always be expressed by the prepositions **to** or **for**; and that of the possessive, by **of**. And some languages have other case-forms to express other relations, which we express by prepositions only: for example, by **from** ("ablative" case), and **in** ("locative" case), and **with** ("instrumental" case).

84. The preposition and the word which it governs form together what is called a **PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE**. Such a phrase has a value in the sentence resembling that of the two modifying parts of speech, the adjective and the adverb; and it is to be estimated and named according to this value.

85. If the word to which the noun or the pronoun is attached by the governing preposition is a noun, then the prepositional phrase has the value of an adjective, limiting or describing that noun.

Often it may be (like the possessive case; **XIII. 64**) replaced by an adjective. Thus, for

a house of wood,                      a man of truth,  
 an emigrant from Ireland,   a residence in the suburbs,  
    an animal with two feet,

we may say

a wooden house,                      a truthful man,  
 an Irish emigrant,                      a suburban residence,  
    a biped animal,

and so on.

The prepositional phrase, when it thus does the duty of an adjective in modifying a noun, is called a **PREPOSITIONAL ADJECTIVE-PHRASE**.

Such a phrase may be used in all the various constructions in which an adjective is used: thus, as predicate, simple or objective:

**His house is in the city;   He seemed out of humor;**  
**They danced themselves out of breath;**

with a noun used absolutely:

**Their minds at ease, they departed.**

86. On the other hand, if the word to which the noun or pronoun is attached by the preposition is a verb or an adjective or an adverb, the value of a phrase is that of an adverb, and it is called a **PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB-PHRASE**.

Here, also, we may often substitute for the adverb-phrase a simple adverb. Thus, for

**It burned to the ground,                      It mounted in the air,**  
**He spoke with anger,**

we may say

**It burned down,                                      It mounted aloft,**  
**He spoke angrily.**

In fact, we may readily substitute for almost any adverb an adverbial phrase, made up of a preposition and a noun, often with an adjective modifying the noun: thus,

**there is in that place;                      now is at this time;**  
**hastily is with haste, or in a hasty manner;**

and so on.

Many prepositional adverb-phrases have assumed such a stereotyped form that the words are hardly to be taken apart and parsed separately: thus, for example,

**on board, on fire, at hand, out of doors, on the whole,**  
**for the present:**

and we saw above (IX. 15. b) that such phrases are sometimes made of a preposition and adjective : as,

in vain, for long, at-present ;

and also (IX. 5. II. h), that many adverbs are formed by fusing together the words of such phrases : as,

abreast, afire, anew, abroad, besides, below, outdoors,  
beforehand, to-day, overboard.

87. We have already seen (X. 5) that an adverb-phrase, like an adverb, sometimes takes the place of a noun as object of a preposition : for example,

He went from here,      He came from beyond the sea.

88. We have, then, the following rules as to the use of prepositions :

**XVI.** *A preposition forms with its object either an ADJECTIVE-PHRASE, modifying a noun, or an ADVERB-PHRASE, modifying a verb or an adjective or an adverb.*

**XVII.** *The object of a preposition (if a noun or a pronoun) is in the objective case.*

### SUMMARY OF COMBINATIONS FORMING THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

89. We have now considered the parts of speech which combine with one another to form simple sentences, and have noticed the ways in which their combinations are made.

In these ways, the necessary elements of the sentence, the bare subject and predicate, are extended and filled up so as to express a thought in a more complete and detailed manner.

90. We may sum up the processes of combination as follows (in these statements, for brevity's sake, we treat the pronoun as included along with the noun) :

a. *The original elements of the sentence are the subject-noun and the verb.*

b. *The meaning of the verb may be filled out by an object-noun ; also, by a predicate adjective or noun (modifying either the subject or the object) ; or it may be modified by an adverb.*

c. *A noun in any construction in the sentence may be modified by an adjective ; an adjective, by an adverb ; an adverb, by another adverb.*

d. *A noun may be made to modify another noun, adjectively, by being put in the possessive case, or by being joined to the other noun by a preposition; it may be made to modify a verb or adjective or adverb, adverbially, sometimes in the objective case simply, but usually by means of a preposition.*

The "absolute" construction of a noun with an appositive adjunct is here left unnoticed, as being less common, and apart from the ordinary processes of sentence-making. Also, the compounding of the various elements of a sentence by means of conjunctions, because this is a kind of ABBREVIATION, and will be treated of fully in **XVII**.

91. The words and phrases thus added to the subject-noun, or bare subject, and to the verb, or bare predicate, are, in either case, called its **MODIFIERS**, or **ADJUNCTS**; or, collectively, its **COMPLEMENT**. And the bare subject or predicate, along with its adjuncts or modifiers, is called the **COMPLETE** subject or predicate.

Some prefer to speak of the subject as "extended" or "enlarged," and of the predicate as "completed," by the additions made to each respectively; and hence, to call the whole subject the "enlarged" or "extended" subject, and to call only the predicate "completed" or "complete"; but the distinction is not of consequence enough to be worth making.

92. In the ways described above, the simple sentence is, in theory, capable of being drawn out and filled up to any extent—made a whole page long, for instance. But, in practice, the length of a sentence is kept within limits by the fear of making it awkward and lumbering, or even unintelligible. We put what we have to say, by preference, into a series of briefer sentences, separate statements. And the relation of these separate statements to one another we often determine by means of connecting words.

93. The connecting words which determine the relation of sentences to one another are the conjunctions and the relative, or conjunctive, pronouns and pronominal adjectives. These bind together simple sentences more or less completely into a whole. Combinations of simple sentences made in this way are called compound and complex sentences: and we have next to take up and explain such sentences.

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

The exercises that follow are meant especially to show the rarer and more exceptional combinations which are treated of in chapter XIII.

If the sentence is to be parsed, or if special constructions are to be described, as in the following exercises, an antecedent analysis, similar to that on p. 49, is all that is required. When, however, a sentence is not to be parsed, the relation of the complements to the subject and predicate as described in the preceding chapter may be given in greater or less detail, and in the same manner as on p. 49. It should, however, be remembered that the mechanical repetition of well-known details serves no educational purpose.

## §§ 17-21.

## I.

1. It dawns ; will it never be day? 2. How far is it, my lord, to Berkley now? 3. Nearly one half of the inhabitants were assembled. 4. The army of the queen mean to besiege us. 5. 'Twas Pentecost, the feast of gladness. 6. Havoc and spoil and ruin are my gain. 7. The world has all its eyes on Cato's son. 8. But by the yellow Tiber was tumult and affright. 9. It is the kings who are the chiefs of the people. 10. Thine are honest tears. 11. It was at Jerusalem, and it was winter. 12. And I, behold, I establish my covenant with you. 13. He was a wonderful man, that uncle of yours. 14. Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me. 15. This sacred shade and solitude, what is it? 16. We will ourself in person to the war. 17. It is no disgrace to have an old father and a ragged shirt. 18. He that curseth his father or mother, let him die the death. 19. Two-thirds of this is mine by right. 20. The tramp of horses, the blast of a trumpet, were heard. 21. The Epic as well as the Drama is divided into tragedy and comedy. 22. Nor man nor fiend has fallen so far. 23. Seriousness and zeal in religion is natural to the English. 24. My purse, my coffer, and myself is thine. 25. So doth the prince of Hell and his adherents. 26. Peace and esteem is all that age can hope. 27. Why is dust and ashes proud? 28. None of the inmates is in the house. 29. There are a great number of inhabitants.

## II.

Supply suitable predicates for the following, using the present or the past tense of be, assigning reasons for the agreement :

1. Either John or James. 2. Either you or I. 3. John or you. 4. He, as well as you. 5. You, and not he. 6. More than a little. 7. More than five. 8. Nothing but ease and comfort. 9. Not you, but Mary. 10. John or James or their sisters. 11. More than he. 12. The hue and cry. 13. Fifty cents. 14. "Thompson's Seasons." 15. The horse and buggy. 16. Bread and water. 17. Twice two. 18. Six and five. 19. It is I who. 20. It is I, the king, who.

## §§ 23-31.

1. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. 2. All looks yellow to the jaundiced eye. 3. Man became a living soul. 4. The time turns torment, when folly turns man's head. 5. With him lay dead both hope and pride. 6. How came you thus estranged. 7. This act shows terrible and grave. 8. As you are here, you may sit quiet here.



9. The nail stuck fast. 10. A French King was brought prisoner to London. 11. Now is the winter of our discontent, made glorious summer by this sun of York. 12. She would make a good heroine. 13. The fiend lies stretched out, huge in length. 14. She stood silent. 15. The fog came pouring in. 16. My silence will sit drooping. 17. My wedding bell rings merry in my ear. 18. He came running to meet me. 19. He feels well. 20. It froze hard last night.

### § § 32-53.

The objective predicate word may be described as modifying (or, if a noun as relating to and describing) such and such a noun or a pronoun, being brought into connection with it by such and such a verb, of which it (the noun or the pronoun) is the direct object.

As an additional exercise, change, when possible, the active into the passive conjugation, and *vice versa*.

1. I'll leave my son my virtuous deeds behind. 2. Now call me the chief of the harem guard. 3. He wrought the castle much annoy. 4. I mean you no harm. 5. He gives his parents no tremulous anxiety. 6. An inauspicious office is enjoined thee. 7. We could raise you five hundred soldiers. 8. Ask me no questions, and I'll tell you no fibs. 9. Grant me still a friend in my retreat, whom I may whisper, "Solitude is sweet"! 10. Merry elves, their morrice pacing, trip it deft and merrily. 11. She sweeps it through the court with troops of ladies. 12. We can walk it well; we want no coach. 13. The gale had sighed itself to rest. 14. He prayed a prayer that it would last him a year. 15. He has had his hat on. 16. Cradles rock us nearer to the tomb. 17. Perseverance keeps honor bright. 18. All men think all men mortal but themselves. 19. He hides his own offences, and strips others' bare. 20. A man's best things lie close about his feet. 21. The shower has left the myrtles and the violet bank so fresh. 22. Sooner shall they drink the ocean dry. 23. I must not see thee Osman's bride. 24. He thought best not to speak of it. 25. He ran the gauntlet and the streets ran rivers of blood. 26. The favors of Herod had left many persons in possession of estates. 27. She was picked up dead. 28. It rained blessings upon his head. 29. He was thought foolish. 30. He was seen with his feet on the stove.

### § § 54-61.

We may describe the appositive noun as in apposition with such and such a noun (or pronoun), being added to it in order further to designate the same thing; and the appositive adjective in a similar manner.

1. History is philosophy teaching by examples. 2. Without the assistance of these works, indeed, a revolution could have taken place—a revolution productive of much good and much evil; tremendous but short-lived evil; dearly purchased but durable good. 3. Learning, that cobweb of the brain. 4. Ardent and intrepid on the field of battle, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute. 5. I found the urchin Cupid sleeping. 6. On him, their second Providence, they hung. 7. Sister Livy is married to farmer Williams. 8. They sang Darius, good and great, by too severe a fate fallen from his high estate, and weltering in his blood. 9. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.



10. That is so, the world over. 11. Amazed, confused, he found his power expired. 12. The Niobe of nations, there she stands. 13. He has got rid of his troubles and will remain for the time being. 14. Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East. 15. They all, with one consent, began to make excuse. 16. Enthusiastically attached to the name of liberty, these historians troubled themselves little about its definition. 17. And earthly power doth then show likest God's, when, etc. 18. Raw in fields, the rude militia swarms; mouths without hands, maintained at vast expense, in peace a charge, in war a weak defence; stout, once a month they march, a blustering band, and ever, but in times of need, at hand.

## § § 62-68.

## I.

1. Thou art freedom's now, and fame's. 2. That is madam Lucy, my master's mistress's maid. 3. The lieutenant's last day's march is over. 4. The power which brought you here hath made you mine. 5. Five times outlawed had he been, by England's king and Scotland's queen. 6. I knew myself only as his, his daughter, his the mighty. 7. My life is my foe's debt. 8. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now. 9. Shall Rome stand under one man's awe? 10. His beard was of several day's growth. 11. Do not name Silvia thine. 12. The blind old man of Scio's rocky isle. 13. I was taken to a new toy of his and the squire's, which he termed the falconry. 14. Letters came last night to a dear friend of the good duke of York's. 15. This toil of ours should be a work of thine.

## II.

Express, where possible, the meaning of the following by using the possessive case, assigning reasons in each case, and giving the value of the possessive when used:

1. This crown belongs to the Queen of England. 2. This farm belongs to John, Peter, and Richard. 3. The overcoats of the working men were stolen. 4. I have had an intercourse of six years with him. 5. The day of judgment. 6. The power of truth. 7. The estates of John, Peter, and Richard are for sale. 8. We admire the genius of Scot, the novelist. 9. The son of the sister of the wife of Silas. 10. Reilly sells shoes for misses and ladies. 11. For the sake of righteousness. 12. A reward of ten dollars is offered. 13. I had the worth of my money. 14. In spite of the opposition of such a man as Jones. 15. The day of the Lord. 16. The isle of Iceland. 17. The bent of his mind. 18. The theft by my son. 19. The loss of my son. 20. The events of the morning. 21. A picture belonging to my son. 22. A picture of my son.

## § § 69-81.

The ordinary constructions of the adverb have been abundantly exemplified in the exercises already given. The following sentence will furnish examples of parsing the adverbial objective and the nominative absolute:

He waited an hour staff in hand.

In this sentence, the nouns *hour* and *staff* are to be described as hitherto, in regard to *kind* and *form*; and their *construction* is to be defined in some such way as this: *hour* is an adverbial objective, added to the verb waited to point out *how long* the waiting was; *staff* is in the nominative absolute, being used along with its adjunct in hand to express a circumstance accompanying the act of waiting—as if it were “He waited *with a staff* in his hand.”

1. The mighty wreck lay right athwart the stream. 2. Here was the chair of state, having directly over it a rich canopy. 3. He is above, sir, changing his dress. 4. His father left him well off. 5. My son is either married, or going to be so. 6. Use a little wine for thine often infirmities. 7. Cowards die many times before their deaths. 8. His hoary head, conspicuous many a league. 9. Thus have I been twenty years in thy house. 10. The bird of dawning singeth all night long. 11. Tenderly her blue eyes glistened long time ago. 12. Five times every year he was to be exposed in the pillory. 13. Seamen, with the self-same gale, will several different courses sail. 14. I was born not three hours' travel from this very place. 15. From morn till noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve, a summer's day. 16. The last impossible, he fears the first. 17. The rest must perish, their great leader slain. 18. He left my side, a summer bloom on his fair cheeks, a smile parting his innocent lips. 19. Each in his narrow cell forever laid, the rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep. 20. The foe and the stranger will tread o'er his head, and we far away on the billow.

#### §§ 82-88.

How to parse the preposition and its object as separate words has been already abundantly illustrated in previous exercises. The definition of the two together as a phrase has now to be added; and the construction of the phrase is to be stated, in the same manner as that of the simple part of speech to which the phrase is equivalent.

A few examples for practice are given here. As an additional exercise, state and give the values of the other phrases in each of the following sentences:

1. And every shepherd tells his tale under the hawthorn in the dale. 2. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among, leaps the live thunder. 3. Why to frenzy fly for refuge from the blessings we possess? 4. All the triumphs of truth and genius over prejudice and power, in every country and in every age, have been the triumphs of Athens. 5. By an exclusive attention to one class of phenomena, by an exclusive taste for one species of excellence, the human intellect was stunted. 6. We take no note of time, but from its loss. 7. We ne'er can reach the inward man, or inward woman, from without. 8. The time 'twixt six and now must by us both be spent most precious. 9. Shriller shrieks now mingling come from within the plundered dome. 10. Till then, in blood, by noble Percy lie. 11. Other ways exist besides through me. 12. She shall be our messenger to this paltry knight.

#### §§ 1-88.

1. The horse has broken loose. 2. O'er our heads the weeping willow streamed its branches, arching like a fountain shower. 3. Under the cool shade of a sycamore, I thought to close mine eyes some half an

hour. 4. He wished me well. 5. What with one thing and what with another, I am almost driven mad. 6. He leaves this day month. 7. I for one, am inclined to think so. 8. You played me false. 9. I cannot away with them. 10. The murderer made away with his victim. 11. He refused me point blank. 12. Thou'lt take cold shortly. 13. I am good friends with him. 14. I cry you mercy. 15. The maiden breathed her last. 16. I would fain live. 17. He drank a glass too much. 18. He played fast and loose. 19. For hours now wind and rain have ceased. 20. I met him the day before. 21. What a dance you have led him ! 22. No veil she needed, virtue proof. 23. He came five minutes or so before the time. 24. It is all over with us. 25. Make haste back. 26. She led him a sorry life of it. 27. They were hand and glove together. 28. It is twenty years now, gone Christmas day. 29. The prisoner pleaded guilty. 30. He ate his father out of house and home. 31. It will last my time. 32. He fell flat on the floor. 33. He fell full length on the floor. 34. The children sat the play out. 35. And the imperial vot'ress passed on, in maiden meditation, fancy free. 36. They marched out five and five. 37. He limped shoeless across the street. 38. Given health, he meant to do his duty. 39. He is all heart and soul. 40. She became more and more attached to him. 41. He went out raving. 42. He got rid of his troubles. 43. He walked his best. 44. Give me some more pudding. 45. Have done saying so. 46. I talked about shooting and what not. 47. Her face flushed crimson. 48. He was picked up alive. 49. His voice sounded cracked. 50. He took his soup hot. 51. Nothing else will please him. 52. Here are two more copies. 53. He measured the height merely. 54. The hat doesn't become you, although you have become its owner. 55. James proved his statement ; so yours proved a mistake. 56. The method may be made use of. 57. How vile an idol proves this god ! 58. He was soon reputed one of the best sports in the country.

1. Discuss the following statements :

a. The verb need not, and generally does not, agree with its nominative case in number and person.

b. Active verbs and prepositions do not govern the objective case or any other case.

c. One verb does not govern another in the infinitive ; nor is the infinitive a mood, nor is it governed by substantives, adjectives, or participles.

d. Conjunctions need not connect the same moods and tenses of verbs.

2. Give the clause-equivalents of the absolute phrases in the following :

1. The wind being favorable, we set sail. 2. The object being a good one, we shall support it. 3. He out of the way, we should have no difficulty. 4. The sun having risen, we left. 5. Away he went, I vainly trying to keep up with him. 6. Next Anger rushed, his eye on fire.

3. By means of the preceding exercises, show which is the more definite means of expression, the attributive word, phrase, or clause.

## CHAPTER XIV.

## COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

## COMBINATION OF SENTENCES.

1. As we do not like to make a simple sentence too long and intricate (XIII. 92), so, on the other hand, we do not like to make our simple sentences too bare, or to limit ourselves to simple sentences. To say

**They spoke: we listened,**

might, with the help of circumstances, be understood to mean

**They spoke and we listened; or, They spoke but we listened;**

**They spoke while we listened; or, They spoke, therefore we listened;**

the mind inferring each time what the relation was between the two acts. But we join the sentences together with connectives, partly in order to make the relation more plainly and surely understood, partly because a succession of bare sentences would sound to us jerky and ungraceful. See also XI. 2.

2. We could, if we chose, put all we have to say on any subject, into little separate sentences; thus, for example:

I awoke one day. It was last week. It was six o'clock. I got up at once. I dressed myself. The sun was up. It was hidden by clouds. The morning was not very light. I walked into the garden. The grass was still wet. The bushes were still wet. The dew lay upon them. I saw a bird. The bird lay on the ground. It could not fly. It was wounded. Some one had hit it with a stone. I picked the bird up. I brought it into the house. I put it into a cage. I fed it. I tended it. It got well. I released it. It flew away.

The connection of all this is clear enough, though there are no connecting words to point it out. But it sounds jerky and ungraceful. No one writes or talks in that way—unless sometimes for very young children, who have not yet grown familiar

enough with language to make or to understand longer combinations of words. For the use of people in general, we work it into better form by combining the little sentences with connectives; by their aid, also, getting rid of unnecessary repetitions; thus, for example:

**I awoke at six o'clock one day last week, and at once got up and dressed myself. The morning was not very light; for, though the sun was up, it was hidden by clouds. As I walked out into the garden, where the grass and bushes were still wet with the dew that lay upon them, I saw a bird lying on the ground. It could not fly, because some one had wounded it with a stone. I picked the bird up and brought it into the house, put it into a cage, and fed and tended it until it got well; when I released it, and it flew away.**

3. The connecting words which bind sentences together into one are the conjunctions, and the relative pronouns and relative pronominal adjectives, which are also called conjunctive, because they do the duty of conjunctions (VI. 42; VII. 36; and XI. 4 and 6). The combination of clauses into sentences is of two degrees, one closer and the other less close.

#### COMPOUND SENTENCES.

4. In the latter case, the clauses are put side by side and, as it were, loosely tied together, each keeping its own value as an independent assertion. Such clauses are called **INDEPENDENT** or **PRINCIPAL**. With relation to one another, again, they are called **CO-ORDINATE**. See II. 53.

5. The conjunctions which join clauses in this way, leaving to each its original character, not making either dependent on the other, are called the **CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS**.

6. A sentence which is made up of two or more independent clauses is called a **COMPOUND** sentence.

But two or more independent clauses may be so connected in sense as to be regarded as parts of one sentence, even though they are not joined by conjunctions (II. 56). And on the other hand (XI.7,b), we often put a simple connective, especially **and** or **but**, at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to point out in a general way its relation to what precedes. Thus there is no absolute distinction between the sentence and the clause.



## COMPLEX AND COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES.

7. When, however, a clause is made to play the part of a word, a single part of speech, in another clause (II. 54; V. 74; VII. 59, d; and IX. c), it is said to be **DEPENDENT** on that other, or to be **SUBORDINATE** to it; and it is called a **DEPENDENT**, or **SUBORDINATE** clause. And, according to the part it plays, a dependent clause is called a **SUBSTANTIVE-CLAUSE**, an **ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE**, or an **ADVERB-CLAUSE**.

Thus we have all the principal parts of speech (not the connectives) represented by clauses, except the verb—and, of course, the pronoun, which is itself only a substitute for a noun.

There can be no such thing as a verb-clause, because a verb has no other office than that of making a clause or a sentence.

A phrase like

as regards,

which is abbreviated from

so far as it regards,

may even be said to have the value of a preposition, or preposition-phrase—"concerning," or "in respect to."

8. A sentence which contains as one of its members a dependent clause is called a **COMPLEX** sentence.

A complex sentence may also contain more than one dependent clause :

a. These may be of different kinds, and unconnected with one another : thus,

What lay there was, if I saw aright, a bird which could not fly.

b. Or, a dependent clause may have another clause dependent on it, and this again another, and so on : for example,

I went into the garden where the grass was wet with the dew that lay upon it;

This is the maiden all forlorn, that milked the cow with the crumpled horn, that tossed the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

c. Or, two or more dependent clauses of the same kind may have the same construction in a sentence, being joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions : thus,

A bird that lay on the ground and that could not fly:



It could not fly because it had been shot or it had been hit with a stone ;

I saw that the bird was wounded and that it could not fly.

Dependent clauses, as well as independent ones, are called co-ordinate when they are thus joined, and have a like office ; since *co-ordinate* simply means 'having the same rank.'

9. A compound sentence, moreover, may be made by joining together instead of simple sentences, complex ones, or simple and complex. Such a sentence is called COMPOUND-COMPLEX.

10. In these ways, sentences of very great length and complexity are sometimes made. In theory there is no limit to the extent to which a sentence may be compounded and made complex by the combination of clauses. But in practice (just as in the case of the simple sentence : XIII. 92), a limit is set by the fear of becoming burdensome or unintelligible.

In different styles of writing, and in the practice of different authors, the variety as regards the general simplicity or complexity of the structure of sentences is very great. Generally speaking, the English of the present day prefers the short, uncomplicated type of sentence.

### SUMMARY.

11. We may sum up what has been said of sentences other than simple ones in the following definitions and rules :

**XVIII.** *A clause is either independent or dependent ; INDEPENDENT, if it forms an assertion by itself ; DEPENDENT, if it enters into some other clause, with the value of a part of speech : namely, of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.*

**XIX.** *Clauses are CO-ORDINATE if they are of the same rank : either as being alike independent, or as being alike dependent, with the same construction.*

**XX.** *A sentence is COMPOUND, if made up of independent clauses ; COMPLEX, if it contains a dependent clause, or more than one ; COMPOUND-COMPLEX, if one or more of its independent clauses are complex.*

**XXI.** *Co-ordinate clauses, whether independent or dependent, are usually joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions.*

**XXII.** *A dependent clause is joined to the clause (independent or dependent), on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, by a subordinating conjunction, or by a relative pronoun or adjective.*

**XXIII.** *A dependent clause is named from its office in the sentence of which it forms a part: it is a substantive, or an adjective, or an adverb clause.*

**XXIV.** *A SUBSTANTIVE-CLAUSE is one which performs the office of a noun: being the subject or the object of a verb, the object of a preposition, and so on.*

**XXV.** *An ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE is one which performs the office of an adjective, by modifying a noun.*

**XXVI.** *An ADVERB-CLAUSE is one that performs the office of an adverb, by modifying a verb, or an adjective, or an adverb.*

A few more detailed statements as to the three different kinds of dependent clauses need to be added here.

## DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

### I.—Adjective-Clauses.

12. Of the dependent clauses, the adjective-clause is the simplest in construction. It is always the equivalent of an attributive or an appositive adjective, and regularly and usually follows the noun or the pronoun which it modifies.

13. The adjective-clause is introduced either by a relative pronoun, or else by such a conjunction as may also be called a relative adverb (**IX. 5, g**): thus,

whence, where, why, when.

Each of these last is equivalent to a relative pronoun with a preposition governing it: thus,

**The country whence (=from which) he came; the city where (=in which) he lived;**

**the reason why (=for which) he is here; the time when (=at which) he went.**

### I.—CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO LOGICAL VALUE.

14. On the basis of their logical value, adjective-clauses may be classed as follows (compare **VI. 48** and **VII. 59, d**):

a. Those adjective-clauses which limit or define the meaning of their antecedents : thus,

**This is something that I must guard against ;  
They had fled from the post where God had placed them ;  
He hath the means whereby he may accomplish it ;  
Never yet was noble man but made ignoble talk (VI. 65) ;  
Make me savory meat such as I love (VI. 64).**

Such clauses may be distinguished as **RESTRICTIVE**.

In the following, the construction of the adjective-clauses presents some difficulties :

**On the day that (=on which) thou eatest thereof, etc. ;**

**This is the reason that (=for which) I sent for you ;**

**He never (=at no time) sees me that (=at which) he does not mock me ;**

**Theirs (=Of them) is the fault who began the quarrel ;**

**He is not here that (antecedent a being here implied) I know of ;**

**Did you see him ? (I did) Not (see him) that I recollect ;**

**It is you that say so.**

In the first, second, and third examples, the omission of the preposition has allowed the use of *that* ; and in the fourth, fifth, and sixth, the antecedent of the relative is implied, not separately expressed. The use of a relative with its antecedent implied in a possessive case is common in poetry, but is not sanctioned in prose. In the last example, which emphasizes the *you* of *You say so*, the meaning and proper construction are

**It that says so is you ;**

but as this order would emphasize the *it*, the above construction has become idiomatic, the verb undergoing attraction (XIII. 20, (2) a). So, too, with *It is I that say so* ; and *It is they that say so*.

b. Those adjective-clauses which do not limit or define the meaning of their antecedents but indirectly modify a verbal word in the clause to which the antecedent belongs (VI. 48) : thus,

**When I that(= because I) knew him fierce and turbulent, refused her to him :**

**He deceived his master who (=although he) had been his friend ;**

Such clauses may be distinguished as **DESCRIPTIVE SUBORDINATING**.

Clauses under a. above with indefinite antecedents may be replaced by conditional clauses : thus,

**An old maid that (=if she) has the vapors, produces infinite disturbances ;**

but as they limit their antecedents they are properly classifiable there.

c. Those adjective-clauses which attach something additional to a sentence, having nearly the value of a co-ordinating conjunction, usually **and**, with a personal pronoun, or a demonstrative pronoun or adverb : thus,

**He spoke to you, who (=and you) then left the room ;**

**I gave him some bread, which (=and it or this) he ate ;**

**He passed it to the stranger, who (=and he) drank heartily ;**

**She carried it to the closet, where (=and there) she hid it ;**

**His father, who (=for he) was close by, came over at once ;**

**My dog, which (=for it) had come with me, began to growl.**

Such clauses may be distinguished as **DESCRIPTIVE CO-ORDINATING** ; and, although adjective in value, they are, of course, logically independent.

In this use **which** and **as** (VI. 64.) have their antecedent implied in the preceding context : thus,

**He did not come, which (=and this) I greatly regret ;**

**He has been long dead, as (=and this) is well known ;**

the antecedents being **his not coming** and **his being dead**.

Other examples of this use of **as** are

**So you are here again as (is) usual ;**

**As you have been often told, you have no chance ;**

**If, as is quite likely, you find him at home, etc. ;**

**The King, as I verily believe, was responsible for the rebellion.**

But as the last example shows, this construction shades off into one in which it is proper enough to value the **as**-clause as adverbial. See 23 below.

## II.—LOGICAL VALUES OF ATTRIBUTIVE WORDS AND PHRASES.

15. The logical values of attributive words and phrases correspond to those of adjective-clauses, as may be seen on representing the former by equivalent adjective-clauses : thus,

### a. RESTRICTIVE :

**Brown, the grocer, has failed ; The best man wins ; The then mayor presided ;**

### b. DESCRIPTIVE SUBORDINATING :

**She married him, the servant ; Overcome by misfortune, the hero wept ;**

**He was melted at the sight of his wife in tears.**

## c. DESCRIPTIVE CO-ORDINATING :

He worshipped God, the Creator; The golden sun shines on high;  
He attained peace with honor.

## II.—Substantive-Clauses.

16. The substantive-clause has a great variety of constructions, corresponding to those of the noun to which it is equivalent :

## I.—CONSTRUCTIONS.

The substantive clause may be used :

## a. As subject of a verb : for example,

What they say is not to the point;  
Whether you go or stay is of little account;  
That he is already gone disappoints us.

The frequent substitution of *it*, a representative subject, for a substantive-clause, has been noticed above (VI. 26, a).

## b. As object of a verb : for example,

I know not what I shall do;  
They saw that she was ill;  
We considered whether it would answer;  
He showed me where he had put it;  
He asked me if he was right.

The use of *it* as representative object of a verb has also been noticed above (VI. 26, b).

## c. As predicate noun : for example,

He is precisely what he seems;  
My home is wherever I am happy.

## d. In apposition : for example,

The fact that it was done by him is apparent;  
His letter is to the purport that he will soon arrive.

In older English the subject of a dependent substantive-clause is sometimes anticipated by a noun or a pronoun, standing as the direct object of the verb, the dependent clause thus becoming a restrictive appositive thereto : thus in the Authorized Version of the Bible,

Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow;  
I see your father's face, that it is not toward me;

and in Shakespeare,

Conceal me what I am;  
Did'st thou not mark the king what words he spake?

e. As object of a preposition : for example,

He traded with what capital he had ;  
 You err in that you think so ;  
 Has he any notion of why I did so ?  
 She is doing well except that she cannot sleep ;  
 He says nothing but what is true.

Substantive clauses after *but* present some difficulties. Examples are

I cannot believe *but* that you were there ;  
 We did not know *but* that he would come ;  
 We would have done so *but* that our means failed.

*But* (that is *by-out* ; O. E. *bi* "close to," and *utan* "outside") originally meant "close to the outside of," "without," "except," "leaving out," "to the contrary of," one of which meanings or one akin thereto it has in its different constructions : thus the above examples are equivalent to

I cannot believe to the contrary of your having been there ;  
 We did not know to the contrary of the possibility of his coming ;  
 We would have done so, leaving out (*i. e.*, had it not been for) the failure of our means.

f. A substantive-clause introduced by *that* (or, rarely, *lest*) is often added directly to a verb or adjective or noun, where a noun would require a preposition to be used as connective : for example,

They insisted that we should stay ;  
 We cherish the hope that he will return ;  
 There is no need that she be present ;  
 We are quite sorry that it is so ;  
 I have no doubt that he took it ;  
 It is time that we were starting ;  
 He was afraid lest he should fall ;

which we should say

Insisted on his staying ;	Hope of his return ;
Need of her presence ;	Sorry for its being so ;

and so on with the rest.

Of the same nature is the construction of the substantive-clauses in the following :

I am undecided whether I should go or stay ;  
 I don't care who did it ; why he did it ; when he did it ; etc.



This construction is most analogous to that of the ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE (XIII. 73, etc.), or noun made adjunct to some other word without any sign of the relation between them being expressed.

Another similar case, of a substantive-clause used adverbially without a preposition, is seen in such sentences as

In whatever state I am, I am always content;

Whoever may say it, I shall not believe it.

The complete expression, namely, is

Whatever state I am in, I am always content with;

or, analyzing the compound indefinite relative into antecedent and relative,

Content with any state in which I am.

Then, putting, in the independent clause, a pronoun *correlative* to the dependent clause, we have,

In whatever state I am, I am always content with it;

and the omission of the adverb-phrase with it gives the form as first stated.

In like manner,

However he may struggle, he cannot escape;

Wherever he may be, he will be happy;

are equivalent to

He cannot escape by any way in which he may struggle;

He will be happy in any place in which he may be;

with the connectives *by* and *in* unexpressed.

On the other hand, not a few words which were formerly prepositions governing substantive clauses introduced by *that* have now come to be used, generally or always, directly as conjunctions (compare XI. 8, c.), by the omission of *that*: for example,

After he had gone;

Until he shall arrive;

Except he confess it;

while we may also say,

After that he had gone.

But, also, originally a preposition (15. e. above) has a variety of constructions, in some being a preposition followed by *that*, and in others by its omission becoming a co-ordinating conjunction or the equivalent of a relative pronoun with a negative (VI. 65).

g. Occasionally a substantive-clause is used with the value of a nominative absolute: for example,

We bought some more, what we had not proving sufficient;  
Granted that he did so; that he did so being conceded; etc.

And in

You shall have it, provided it pleases you,

we have the participle of an absolute construction used with the value of a conjunction owing to the omission of **that**.

## II.—INTRODUCTORY WORDS.

17. The words which introduce a substantive-clause are especially these :

a. The indefinite relative pronouns and pronominal adjectives, with their corresponding adverbs : namely,

**who (whose, whom), what, which ;**

**when, where, whence, whither, why, how ;**

**whoever, whosoever, whenever, etc.**

When used with a simple relative meaning, these words introduce adjective or adverb-clauses ; but, by including also the "antecedent" of their relative part, they become equivalent to the person **who** ; the thing **which** ; the place **in or from or to which** ; the time **at which** ; the reason **for which** ; and so on ; that is, they imply a substantive word along with an adjective or adverbial adjective : for example,

**I heard what he said ;          I know why he said it ;**

are the same as

**I heard the thing which he said ;**

**I know the reason for which he said it.**

b. The dependent interrogatives **who, what, and which**, and their corresponding adverbs : thus,

**I asked him who (or what or which) it was ;**

**He enquired of me when (why, how, etc.) I had gone.**

c. The conjunction **whether**, expressing a doubt or alternative. **If** is sometimes, but less properly, used instead of it: thus

**I know not if it be so.**

d. The conjunction **that** is (as the examples given above abundantly show) very common indeed as introducing substantive-clauses, in many different constructions (XI. 7, a). **Lest**, which has nearly the value of its negative, **that not**, is much less frequent.

## III.—DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

18. A thought may be expressed

a. As coming *directly* from the speaker: thus,

**I go if I wish ;      She has gone ;**

the construction being known as **DIRECT**, and the form of expression as **DIRECT NARRATION**. See also **XVI**.

b. As coming *indirectly* from the speaker: thus,

**He says that he goes if he wishes ; He says that she has gone ;**  
the construction of the substantive-clause being known as **INDIRECT**, or **OBLIQUE**, and the form of expression as **INDIRECT**, or **OBLIQUE**, **NARRATION**.

The thought may also be expressed thus :

**He says "I go if I wish" ; He says "She has gone" ;**

but, although each of the sentences in inverted commas is the object of its verb (v. 75), its construction is still direct : the sentence is merely **QUOTED**.

19. The direct and indirect constructions are, thus, essentially different, although, by the omission of **that**, they occasionally seem to be the same. And further as the direct constructions

**I go if I wish ; She has gone ;**

become, when expressed indirectly,

**He says (has said, or will say) that he goes if he wishes ; that she has gone ;**

**He said (or had said) that he went if he wished ; that she had gone ;**

these examples show

a. That indirect assertions are usually introduced by **that** ;

b. That the tense of the verb in the dependent clause in indirect narration sometimes appears to be affected by the tense of the verb on which this clause depends ; changing from a primary to an historic tense, if the tense of the verb in the governing clause is historic ; but remaining unchanged if the verb in the governing clause is primary. This principle is sometimes known as the **SEQUENCE OF TENSES**.

The change in the tense is really due to the fact that in English we look at both the statement in the principal clause and that in the dependent clause, from the same standpoint of time.

20. The construction of all independent clauses is direct.

Sometimes, also, contrary to the rule for the sequence of tenses, the tense of the direct construction is retained in the dependent clause,

a. When greater vividness is aimed at : thus,

**He answered that the people are fled ;**

b. When the dependent clause states something that is always true : thus,

**Galileo maintained that the earth is round.**

### III.—Adverb-Clauses.

21. An adverb clause usually modifies a verb: much less often, an adjective; and (as is also the case with the simple adverb: **IX. 2**) an adverb rarely, except in the way of defining a degree

#### I.—CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING.

The adverb clause is introduced by a great variety of conjunctions, and it has the same variety of meanings which belong to simple adverbs (**IX. 4**). Thus, we have adverb-clauses:

a. Of **PLACE**: for example,

He lay where he fell; I go ~~where~~ <sup>whence</sup> I shall not return;  
Whither I go, ye cannot come, You can go where (=whither)  
you wish.

b. Of **TIME**: for example,

When I awoke, ~~he~~ <sup>he</sup> was six o'clock; Come down ere my  
child die;

He can ~~say~~ <sup>say</sup> when (=whenever) one speaks to him;  
As we pause, let us look around.

c. Of **MANNER** and **DEGREE**: for example,

He does as he likes; I am as tired as ever a man was;  
They are better than we had expected;

The higher you go, the colder it becomes (**IX. 5. g**);

**Than** and **as** clauses usually suffer abbreviation. See **XVII**.

In complex sentences in which the principal clause contains an adverb, and the subordinate clause a correlative conjunction (for example, **as-as**), the adverb and the subordinate clause are, of course, co-ordinate.

d. Of **CAUSE**: for example,

As you are here, I will go; Since you say it, we believe it;  
The hireling fleeth, because he is an hireling;  
And, for that wine is dear, we will be furnished with our own;  
I must go now, not that I want to go but that I must;  
Thou thinkest him a hero that he did so;

e. Of **RESULT** or **EFFECT**: for example,

He was so weak that he fell; They shouted till the  
woods rang;

His ideas are in such confusion that it is hard to  
understand him;

Is he an oracle that we should look up to him?  
What were you doing that you were not in time?  
Am I a child that you should speak thus to me?

f. Of **END OR PURPOSE** ("final cause"): for example,  
**He died that we might live; Ye shall not touch it, lest ye die;**

g. Of **CONDITION and CONCESSION**; for example,

**If you are honest, you will be respected ;  
 Unless I am mistaken, it was he ;  
 He could not do it though he tried hard ;  
 Except ye see signs and wonders, ye will not believe ;  
 Beshrew my soul, but (=if not) I do love thee ;  
 It never rains but (=if not) it pours ;  
 You may go now so that you are back by five ;**

For other forms of conditional clauses, see under imperative and interrogative sentences (XVI.).

In older English we find also

**Yet what is death, so it be but glorious? Catch me an (=if) thou canst ;;  
 So as men live in peace, they die free from strife.**

In **CONDITIONAL** or hypothetical sentences, that is those that make an assertion dependent upon a condition or a concession, the dependent clause is called **CONDITIONAL** or **CONCESSIVE**; and the principal clause, which expresses the consequence, is called **CONSEQUENT**.

Such sentences also as the following are called conditional :

(1) When the conditional clause is implied in some word or phrase in the sentence : thus,

**It would be folly to do so (=if we did so).**

(2) When one of the clauses is not expressed but implied : thus,

**Thy kiss would wake the dead (if it were given them) ;**

**If I were covetous ( I should be rich ) ; how am I so poor ?**

Ellipses of the consequence are very common with conjunction phrases of comparison, as **as though**, **as if**, **than if** (XVII.).

Conditional sentences have been variously classified ; but such classifications have little practical value. See the exercises on this paragraph.

22. The classification given above of adverb-clauses is not absolute : the different classes shade into one another : the same conjunction has a variety of offices ; and a clause which literally means one thing is applied to quite another purpose, as the examples given above in part illustrate.

## II.—LOGICAL VALUES.

23. As in the case of adjective clauses (13. c. above), some adverb clauses introduced by a relative adverb (XI. 8. b.) of the **when** series may be used descriptively as well as restrictively : thus,

I ate my dinner, when (=and then) he desired me to leave.

So, too, as may be regarded as introducing a descriptive adverb-clause in

The noun, as (=and thus) we have seen, is the name of  
anything;

He said, as was quite likely he should, etc.

But in most of such as-clauses it is quite proper to value the as as equivalent to and this. See 14. c. above.

### III.—CORRELATIVE ADVERBS.

24. The conjunction introducing a clause often has a CORRELATIVE adverb, of kindred meaning, in the clause on which this is dependent, answering toward it much the same purpose as the antecedent to the relative: thus,

Where the bee sucks, there suck I;  
When the heart beats no more, then the life perishes;  
If I speak false, then may my father perish;  
Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him;  
As I entered, so will I retire.

And adverbs of manner and degree are apt to be followed by correlative conjunctives; as so by that; so and as by as; a comparative adverb—more, less, and the like—by than; the by the (IX. 5. g). Out of this usage grow a number of conjunction phrases, as so as, so that, so far as, no sooner than, according as, and so on.

### IV.—Omission of That.

25. In clauses of all kinds, the connective that, whether relative pronoun or conjunction, is very often omitted: thus,

It is strange they do not come home; We saw he was there;  
Here is the book you were looking for; I am sure it is so;  
That is the reason I do not like him;  
He came the moment he heard it;

As we have seen above (16. f.) by the omission of that, words formerly prepositions have taken on the character of conjunctions; the same thing is sometimes true of other parts of speech: for example,

Now he is here, the rest will soon follow;  
Once a beginning is made, the work is half done;  
You shall have it, provided it pleases you;  
In case we are beaten, we shall retire.

See also XI. 8. c.



## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

## § § 1-2

Classes should be practised in taking apart compound and complex sentences into the separate simple statements of which they are made up, and in putting together simple statements into combined forms—and this, not with any reference to defining the grammatical character of the sentences; but simply to show the different shapes which may be given in expression to what is substantially the same thing, and to impart a sense of variety of style in composition. Material for such practice may be found abundantly in the Reader; or it may be made up by pupils or teacher. An example is added here:

## Separate statement:

A frog had seen an ox. She wanted to make herself as big as he. She attempted it. She burst asunder.

These sentences may be combined in various ways, of which the following are some:

1. A frog had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he; but when she attempted it, she burst asunder.

2. A frog that had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he, burst asunder when she attempted it.

3. When this frog burst asunder, she was wishing and attempting to make herself as big as an ox which she had seen.

4. Because a frog, when she had seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and attempted it, she burst asunder.

5. It is said that a frog, having seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and burst asunder in the attempt.

The general exercises on pp. 337 and 338, as well as the exercises throughout the book, may be used as exercises on § § 3-10.

Here and in the exercises on subsequent chapters, only short sentences are given, illustrative of special points in Syntax. The Reader should be used for practice in longer and more involved sentences.

Any syntactical peculiarities of the words and phrases in the following exercises should also be pointed out.

## § § 12-18.

1. He that hath wife and children hath given hostages to fortune. 2. I tell you that which you yourselves do know. 3. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows. 4. It is the hour when lovers' vows seem sweet in every whispered word. 5. The reason why the seven stars are no more than seven is a pretty reason. 6. A history in which every particular incident may be true may on the whole be false. 7. His praise is lost who stays till all commend. 8. For those that fly may fight again, which he can never do that's slain.

## § § 16-20.

1. What reason weaves, by passion is undone. 2. Who cheapens life abates the fear of death. 3. The triumph of my soul is that I am. 4. That there should have been such a likeness is not strange. 5. You have heard if I fought bravely. 6. I never was what is popularly called superstitious. 7. They made a bargain that they would never forsake

each other. 8. You said nothing of how I might be dungeoned for a mad man. 9. I have sinned in that I have betrayed the innocent blood. 10. I am not so certain that these much-decried children have been dunces. 11. I don't care a jot whether you are a prince. 12. It is to you, good people, that I speak. 13. I feared lest it might anger thee. 14. Bid her be judge whether Bassanio had not once a love. 15. Howe'er deserved her doom might be, her treachery was faith to me.

Practice in changing direct into indirect narration and *vice versa* is valuable. The grammatical effects of such changes should be pointed out. For such exercises, suitable material may be found in the Reader.

### § § 21-25.

1. Wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. 2. When I was young, I thought of nothing else but pleasures. 3. 'Tis full two months since I did see him last. 4. Now that their distress was over, they forgot that he had returned to them. 5. In Britain, the conquered race became as barbarous as the conquerors were. 6. There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended, but has one vacant chair. 7. His misery was such that none of the bystanders could refrain from weeping. 8. Ye know the heart of a stranger, seeing ye were strangers in the land of Egypt. 9. That is strange, considering he is your next neighbour. 10. The pains are no sooner over than they are forgotten. 11. So Mahomet and the mountain meet, it is no matter which moves to the other. 12. Scarce had he mounted, ere the Pappenheimers broke through the lines. 13. Although the wound soon healed again, yet, as he ran, he yelled for pain. 14. Tears, such as angels weep, burst forth. 15. The earlier you rise, the better will your nerves bear study. 16. I would not spare him even if he should scorn me. 17. If fortune serve me, I'll requite this kindness. 18. If I could have found a way, I had not started practice. 19. If you had known the virtue of the ring, you would not then have parted with the ring. 20. Though Birnam wood be come to Dunsinane, yet I will try the last. 21. If he were honest, he were much goodlier. 22. Though men may bicker with the things they love, they would not make them laughable. 23. Though all things foul would wear the brows of grace, yet grace must still look so. 24. If you did know to whom I gave the ring, you would abate the strength of your displeasure.

### § 21. g.

#### 1. Explain and illustrate the following statements :

a. Every condition implies something short of actual fact ; and as it is the conditional or concessive clause, not the consequence, that secures departure from the mood of actuality, the rest of the dependent clause should regularly be in a mood of possibility. There may be a departure in the consequence also from the mood of actuality, but this is not necessary. Sometimes, however, an imaginary case is stated as a fact with the dependent clause in the indicative.

b. The present tense-forms being actual should not, strictly speaking, be made the subject of a condition. The futures and their pasts are the regular forms ; but, for effect, the present also is sometimes used.

#### 2. The following classifications of hypothetical sentences have been proposed :

a.—(1) A purely imaginary case implying no judgment as to the realization of the consequence. (2) An imaginary case implying that, though the consequence might have been realized, it has not been, or is not known to have been, realized. (3) An imaginary case implying that the consequence is likely to be realized.

b.—(1) The certain realization of the consequence. (2) The possible realization of the consequence. (3) The supposed realization of the consequence. (4) The impossible realization of the consequence.

Discuss these schemes, and classify, according to both of them, sentences 16-24 under § § 11-25 above ; also the hypothetical sentences in the General Exercises below.

### § § 14, 15, 23 and 25.

1. Classify according to their logical values the adjective and the adverb clauses in the following :

1. The moment my business here is arranged, I must set out. 2. Now I think on thee, my hunger's gone. 3. There be some sports are painful. 4. And you may gather garlands there would grace a summer queen. 5. I carried her to her bed where I laid her down. 6. A glass was offered to Mannering, who drank it to the health of the reigning prince. 7. The schoolmaster had hardly uttered these words, when the stranger entered. 8. When thou fallest, must Edward fall : which peril Heaven forfend ! 9. I don't like to bother you, only I know you'll forgive me. 10. He inculcated a fine feeling towards the weak as such. 11. He is, as it were, trumpet-tongued. 12. Once he sees her, he will surrender. 13. The king is mad, as is well known to all the court. 14. I cannot run the risk of being the only one, as once happened before. 15. As it was, he missed the mark. 16. I confessed myself lower than the brutes who had a law and obeyed it. 17. There is a cooling breeze which crisps the broad clear river.

### GENERAL EXERCISES.

1. I am sorry he is absent : is he a fool that you talk about him thus? 2. So it be new, there's no respect how vile. 3. Now I think he is the ablest man I know, although it was then I said that it was you I had in my mind. 4. I remember the first time that Cæsar ever put it on. 5. There's a divinity that shapes our ends, rough-hew them how we will. 6. Ill fared it then with Roderick Dhu, that on the ground his targe he threw. 8. He began weeping ; he was so vexed. 9. What does it matter what he thinks? 10. In case you do not see him, leave it at the school. 11. If it were done when 't is done, then 't were well it were done quickly. 12. And, if my standard-bearer fall—as fall full well he may—for never saw I promise yet of such a bloody fray, press ye where ye see my white plume shine. 13. Were I Brutus and Brutus Anthony, there were an Anthony would ruffle up your spirits and put a tongue in every wound of Cæsar that should move the stones of Rome to rise and mutiny. 14. But that I am forbid to tell the secrets of my prison-house, I could a tale unfold whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul. 15. I should have died but for him. 16. He it was whose guile, stirred up with envy and revenge, deceived the mother of mankind, what time his pride had cast him out of Heaven. 17. Counting them man by man, the saints are already strong. 18. I bethink me that yesterday, no further gone, I went to visit a consumptive shoemaker. 19. He was asked how he felt. 20. I am resolved already what to do. 21. No sooner did he appear than he fell. 22. This will not be without interest, affording, as it does, a view of the town. 23. Taken all in all, I do not think there is much deception practised in pearls. 24. A glimpse of Jefferson as he appeared in 1834 was afforded to us.

25. It betrayed an interest in the stranger, if stranger he were. 26. He is a man, that is, a fellow-being. 27. If you had travelled as I have done, you, etc. 28. I staked my fame (and I had fame). 29. I was not there; neither was he. 30. There's nothing either good or bad but thinking makes it so. 31. Methinks 'twere well, though, not to run the risk. 32. The principal apartments, as we have seen, were four in number. 33. No one knows but we may make his acquaintance. 34. Take heed the queen come not within his sight. 35. I would ne'er have fled but that they left me 'midst my enemies. 36. Take me whichever way you please. 37. Whichever road you take, it will conduct you home. 38. Handsome is, that handsome does. 39. Hast thou eaten of the tree whereof I commanded thee that thou shouldest not eat? 40. I will have the price, or you will rue it. 41. We cannot say that death is an evil, for it may be the beginning of love. 42. Ruin were better far. 43. If I must sell myself, it matters not if she be fair or foul. 44. For polity, I hold it better that self-governed men should, using freedom, but eschewing license, fare to what chequered fate the will of Heaven reserves for them. 45. He made believe that he had gone. 46. He went between 3 and 4 o'clock that afternoon. 47. It was ten to one if he would give her an apple. 48. I offered to board and to lodge him, all out of respect to you. 49. And so it went on till it came bedtime. 50. One of them flew on her, you might say. 51. He is mine, body and bones. 52. The tree gives fruit all the year round. 53. We all needed rest, especially Leo. 54. There being no remedy, he left *minus* his hat.

### GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. Distinguish the meanings of the following, and comment upon the constructions:
  - (1) It is time he went; It is time he were going; It is time he should go.
  - (2) I will go if he comes; I shall go if he come; I should go if he came; I would go if he came; I should go if he were to come.
  - (3) I said he would go; I said he should go; I said he might go.
  - (4) I am surprised that he was there; I am surprised that he should be there.
  - (5) Should you think it likely? Would you think it likely?
  - (6) He acts as I shall; He acts as I will; He acts as I should; He acts as I would.
  - (7) He saw me home; He saw me at home.
  - (8) The son, full of rage, rushed on him; Full of rage, the son rushed on him.
  - (9) Did I think so, I should speak; Were I to think so, I should speak; If I thought so, I would speak; Had I thought so, I would speak; Had I thought so, I would have spoken.
  - (10) She wondered what it all meant; She wondered what it all might mean.
  - (11) He has a dollar more than I; He has a dollar, more than I.
  - (12) He is a better orator than logician; He is a better orator than a logician.
  - (13) Such an action is wrong; To act so is wrong; That one should act so is wrong.
  - (14) He spoke to his son who was there; He spoke to his son, who was there.
  - (15) How odd that it is true! How odd that it should be true!
  - (16) James and John were not there; Neither James nor John was there.
  - (17) Cato, the wise, was present; The wise Cato, was present.
  - (18) Now I think you will go; Now I think you will go.
  - (19) The British Cabinet disagree; The British Cabinet disagrees.
  - (20) My morning work; My morning's work.
  - (21) He thought little about it; He thought a little about it.
  - (22) He is going at a great rate; He is going it at a great rate.
  - (23) What fool is there? What a fool is there!



2. Account for the italicised letters in the following :

**name, these, seldom, wettest, cities, potatoes, our, tomb.**

3. Discuss the history of the following doublets :

**ancient, ensign ; benison, benediction ; compute, count ; coy, quiet, quit, quite ; flame, phlegm ; ill, evil ; parson, person ; praise, price ; prolong, purloin ; reward, regard ; scandal, slander ; soprano, sovereign ; thatch, deck ; wain, wagon.**

4. Give the different meanings assignable to each of the following, commenting upon the history :

**art, base, compact, don, entrance, fell, graze, host, kind, lustre, mine, own, pale, rake, story, temporal, vault, well, yard.**

5. To express futurity simply, we say **I shall go** and **You will go** ; why, to express futurity simply, do we say **You and I shall go** and not **You and I will go** ?

6. Classify according to their logical values the attributive words and phrases in the exercises on §§ 23-31, p. 315, and on §§ 54-61, p. 316.

7. Discuss and illustrate the following :

- a. The tendencies in English are summed up as follows :

(1) Of two ways to the same end, it prefers the shorter and easier to the longer and harder.

(2) Of two forms which serve the same object, it prefers that which best corresponds to that object.

b. As language progresses, there is a tendency to pass from the co-ordinate to the correlative form.

c. The phrase, in Modern English, is of great importance as it continually replaces some word of the older language.

d. A change of vowels or consonants is either DYNAMIC or PHONETIC. The former gives an altered force or meaning to the word ; the second arises from an instinctive disposition to lessen the expenditure of muscular energy in producing sound. We cannot always tell what changes were originally of the one kind or of the other, because an original dynamic change has very generally been followed by phonetic ones, and because a change originally phonetic may afterwards be taken advantage of to mark changes of meaning, and so appear to be purely dynamic.

e. Owing to its analytical nature Modern English has great flexibility and an almost boundless power of manufacturing verb-phrases.

8. Criticize :

Adverbs, as such, are incapable of comparison ; **more fully** is really the adverbial form of **more full** : **more** is not an adverb modifying **fully**.

9. Discuss the irregularities in the following :

1. Did he not fear the Lord and besought the Lord, and the Lord repented him of the evil which he had pronounced against him ? 2. It touched him not. 3. They at her coming sprung, and, touched by her fair tendance, gladlier grew. 4. The things highest important to the growing age. 5. Bring the rathe primrose that forsaken dies. 6. Whiles I threat, he lives ; words to the heat of deeds too cold breath gives. 7. He hadn't ought to do it. 8. These news are everywhere ; every tongue speaks them. 9. Behold the people is one, and they have all one language. 10. Where is this markind now who lives to age fit to be made Methusaleh his page ? 11. If thou bring thy gift to the altar and there rememberest that thy brother hath aught against thee, etc. 12. Seemed in heart some hidden care she had. 13. Dying or ere they sicken. 14. If he should do so, he leaves his back unguarded. 15. Whether this is so or no, I know not. 16. Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life. 17. I had fainted unless I had seen him. 18. How much more older art thou than thy looks ! 19. The fairest of her daughters, Eve. 20. Except—the which I see not—some way of escape may be found, etc. 21. He trusted to have equalled the Most High. 22. You know my father hath no child but I. 23. Says I to myself, "Here goes."

10. Comment on the tense-value of **ought** in "He said he ought to go."

11. Discuss the question as to whether **man** is abstract or concrete in "Man is mortal."

12. Why can we say "He gave it me," but not "He gave the book me" ?

## CHAPTER XV.

## INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE CONSTRUCTIONS.

## CHARACTER AND USE.

1. The infinitives and participles are, as we have seen (VIII. 31-34), verbal nouns and adjectives: that is to say, words which, while keeping in general their character and use in the sentence as nouns and adjectives, take at the same time the adjuncts or modifiers which are taken by the verb to which they belong—such as objects, predicate nouns and adjectives, and adverbs. Thus, for example, in the “progressive present tense”

I am reading,

the participle **reading** takes all the modifiers which go with the simple verbal form **read** in **I read**; and therefore **I am reading** can be treated as if it were also a simple tense. And the same is true of the infinitive **read** in the “future tense”

I shall read.

On account of this double character, the infinitives and participles have some peculiar constructions, to which it is necessary to give special attention.

## INFINITIVES.

## I.—Simple and Compound Forms.

2. As has been already pointed out (VIII. 36), every verb has two simple infinitives: thus,

(to) give, giving; (to) love, loving; (to) be, being; (to) have  
having.

One of these which has always the same form as the stem, or root-word, of the verb, is called the **ROOT-INFINITIVE**, the form with **to** being, however, sometimes distinguished as the **GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE**. The other, which always ends in **ing**, is known as the **INFINITIVE IN -ing**, or as the **GERUND**.



In addition to these, every verb forms, by adding its imperfect and perfect participles to the infinitives of the auxiliaries **have** and **be**, certain INFINITIVE-PHRASES, which, with the names by which they are called, may be repeated here from **VIII.**

Thus, to the root-infinitive :

	SIMPLE.	PROGRESSIVE.	PASSIVE.
	(to) GIVE,	(to) be giving,	(to) be given ;
Perfect	(to) have given,	(to) have been giving,	(to) have been given ;
and to the infinitive in -ing.			
	GIVING,	(being giving,)	being given ;
Perfect	having given	having been giving,	having been given.

The progressive form **being giving**, though not forbidden, is so uncommon that it can hardly be said to be in use.

## II.—Use and Omission of the “Sign.”

3. The root-infinitive usually has before it the preposition **to**, which is called its **SIGN**, and is to be considered and described as part of it.

In the oldest English, this preposition was used with the infinitive, only when it had a real prepositional value : for example, in such phrases as

**It is good to eat ;                      There is much to say ;**

that is, “good unto eating or for eating” ; “much for saying.” But we add it now to the infinitive in a mechanical way, as if it were a mere grammatical device for pointing out that the following word is an infinitive.

4. But the **to** is also not used in a great many cases :

a. After the verbs generally used as auxiliaries, both in the formation of verb-phrases and in their more independent use. These auxiliaries are **do**, **will**, **shall**, **may**, **can**, and **must**. **Ought** requires **to**.

b. After a few verbs, either usually or optionally. Such are **dare**, **help**, **need**, **'gin** (poetic for **begin**) ; and **please** and **go** in certain uses : for example,

**He dared not leave the place ; or He did not dare to leave it ;**  
**Go find your master ; but He went to find him.**

In older English the same construction is found with **come** : thus, in Shakespeare,

**I sent for you to come speak with me,**

c. In certain peculiar or elliptical constructions. Thus,

(1) After **had** followed by **as lief** (or **lieve**), **better**, **best**, **rather**, etc.: for example,

**I had as lief be none as one ;  
You had better cease your folly ;  
You had best have an eye on him.**

(2) In comparative phrases, like

**As well yield at once as struggle vainly ;  
He resolved, rather than yield, to die with honor.**

When, however, the infinitive in the first clause has **to**, the same construction is usually maintained in the second : thus,

**It is as well to yield at once as to struggle vainly ;  
He resolved to die with honor rather than to yield.**

(3) After **but** (and in some constructions, **except**) following a negative : thus,

**I cannot but be sad ; They did nothing but (or except) idle about.**

(4) When, owing to the emotion of the speaker, the infinitive is used absolutely in exclamations,

**"How ! not know the friend that served you !"  
Lewis marry Blanche ! O boy, then where art thou ?**

d. After certain verbs, when preceded by a word having the relation of object to those verbs, but also the logical value (see below 14) of a subject to the infinitive.

The most common of this class of verbs are **see**, **hear**, **feel**, **let**, **wake**, **bid**, **help**, **have** (in the sense of "make" or "cause"), **know**, **find**. Examples are

**I saw him do it ; I must not have you question me.**

After some of these, **to** is allowed, or is even more usual ; and on the other hand, there are other verbs after which the **to** is occasionally omitted, especially in antique and poetic styles : thus,

**Do but speak what thou'lt have me to do ;  
To bid me not to love is to forbid my pulse to move ;  
Command the grave restore her taken prey ;  
Come, I charge you both go with me.**

When the preceding verb is made passive, **to** is regularly used : thus,

**He was seen to do it ; but He was let go.**

e. Occasionally when it is the subject of a verb, though this usage is somewhat archaic: thus,

Better dwell in the midst of alarms than reign in this horrible place ;  
Will't please you hear me ?  
Me lists not tell what words were said ;  
It were best not know myself.

5. When, in Modern English, the omission of *to* is optional, its retention emphasizes the meaning of the infinitive and produces a formal effect. In the case of *go* and *come*, a dislike for this formality has led to the following idiomatic constructions :

Go and see him ; Come and tell me.

When the infinitive without *to* is used, we have simply the older form (VIII. 37 and 38), which has been retained in the above mentioned cases (4 a-e) owing to our desire to avoid this formality, to the close connection between the infinitive and its governing word (the auxiliary), or to the frequent use of certain expressions. During the Elizabethan period, and even later, before the modern usage was settled, *to* was sometimes not used where it is now used, and sometimes used where it is now not used. Examples are

You ought not walk ; Suffer him speak no more ;  
Who heard me to deny it ? I durst, my lord, to wager she is honest.  
I had rather be a doorkeeper in the house of my God, than to  
dwell in the tents of wickedness.

### III.—Constructions.

6. The two infinitives, with the infinitive phrases that belong to them, have in part the same, and in part different, uses. In noticing the infinitive constructions, we will take up first those in which both agree.

7. The infinitives are used as subject of a verb, or as predicate noun with a verb. Examples are

For him, to hear is to obey ; All we want is to be let alone ;  
Seeing is believing ; His having been absent is a great pity ;  
Giving one's money away liberally is far better than  
keeping everything to one's self.

We have already noticed the frequent anticipation of a subject infinitive (VI. 26, a) by an *it* standing as GRAMMATICAL or REPRESENTATIVE SUBJECT before the verb, while the infinitive, the LOGICAL SUBJECT, follows the verb: thus, for example,

It is good to be here ; It will not suit us to go with you.

8. The infinitives are used as object of a verb.

There are many cases under this head in which either infinitive may be used : thus,

**He likes to journey (or journeying) rapidly :**

**I intend to start (or starting) to-morrow.**

But there are others in which usage allows only the one or the other of them : thus,

**We used to live here, not living here ;**

**They resented having been insulted, not to have been insulted.**

The use of infinitives with auxiliaries comes under this head. (VIII. 109.)

Like the subject infinitive the object infinitive is sometimes anticipated by an **it** standing as REPRESENTATIVE object after the verb (VI. 26. b.): thus,

**He thought it foolish to take this course.**

9. The infinitives are used as object of a preposition.

But the root-infinitive is thus used nowadays almost wholly with the preposition **about** : thus,

**He was about to depart (or about departing),**

in the peculiar sense of "concerned with," "busy about"; and so "on the point of" departing.

Occasionally, however, the root-infinitive with and without **to** is found after **but** and **except** : thus,

**He could do nothing except go; He cannot choose but hear ;**

**No course was open to him except to leave ;**

**He has nothing to do except to go.**

The preposition **for** is also found early prefixed to this infinitive in all grammatical relations. In Modern English its use has disappeared except in the language of the vulgar and when the infinitive may be regarded as having a subject (see 14 below) : thus,

**It is improper for us to act thus.**

But it is still to be met with in the literature of older English, usually expressing purpose (see X. 11. b.) : thus,

**And all countries came into Egypt to Joseph for to buy corn ;**

**Therefore 'tis good and meet for to be wise ;**

**Shame unto thy stock**

**That dar'st presume thy sovereign for to mock.**

The root-infinitive is also to be met with in Middle or archaic English after the preposition **at**, a usage which is due to Danish influence. To this idiom the modern **ado** (that is, **at do**) owes its origin.

On the other hand, the infinitive in **-ing** is very common after a great variety of prepositions : thus,

He is tired of wasting his time on trifles ;  
 I know nothing about her having done it ;  
 The horse is worn with having been ridden so hard ;  
 On becoming king he reversed the policy of his father ;  
 His dread of being thought stingy makes him liberal.

The omission of the preposition produces the following construction in which the infinitives are adverbial objectives (see XIII.73, and compare 12 below) :

He was busy (at) ploughing ; I am tired (of) speaking to you.

#### IV.—Peculiarities of the Construction of the Infinitive in **-ing**.

10. These are all the constructions of the infinitive in **-ing**. They are especially peculiar in this : that the infinitive very often has before it a noun or a pronoun in the possessive, signifying that to which this action expressed by the infinitive belongs, that which is most concerned in it. And this possessive has almost always the value of a **SUBJECTIVE** possessive (XIII. 63. a), or one which points out the subject of the verbal action—one which, if this infinitive phrase were turned into a substantive-clause (as it always may be), would be the subject of that clause : thus,

Tom's being here was a lucky thing ;  
 They insisted on his following them ;  
 He knew of my having been left out ;

are equivalent to

It was a lucky thing that Tom was here ;  
 They insisted that he should follow them ;  
 He knew that I had been left out.

But the possessive may also have the value of an **OBJECTIVE** possessive (XIII. 63. b), pointing out the object or recipient of the verbal action : thus,

The deep damnation of his taking off ;

where the equivalent expression with the subjective possessive would be of their taking him off ; or, with the object turned into a passive subject, of his being taken off. This construction is, however, obsolescent.

11. The uses of the infinitive in **-ing** shade off into those of an ordinary abstract noun, and it is not possible to draw a line sharply between its values as the one and as the other. Thus, in

We read of Cæsar's passing the Rubicon,

**passing** is unmistakably an infinitive, because it takes a direct object **Rubicon**. But, in

**Cæsar's passing of the Rubicon,**  
and yet more in

**the passing of the Rubicon by Cæsar,**  
**passing** has so entirely the construction of a noun, as if it were **the passage of the Rubicon**, that we cannot call the word anything but a noun. Again, in

**Neither blessing nor cursing could change him,**  
it is impossible, as the sentence stands, to say whether **blessing** and **cursing** are infinitives or nouns; the meaning belonging to either would be suitable. If they can take an object (as above) or an adverbial modifier, they are infinitives; if a plural inflection or an adjective of quality, they are nouns. Compare **VIII. 41**.

But the double value of the forms in **-ing** has given rise to cases of disputed propriety of usage. For examples, see the exercises on this paragraph.

Of the following constructions :

- (1) for the passing the Rubicon; (2) for passing of the Rubicon;  
(3) for passing the Rubicon; (4) for the passing of the Rubicon;

Modern English sanctions only (3) and (4), as in these the grammatical values of the forms in **-ing** are unmistakable (Compare **IV. 40. d**). In older English we find, however, as a result of confusion, many examples of (1) and (2): thus, in Shakespeare,

He altered much upon the hearing it;  
So find we profit by losing of our prayers.

#### **V.—Peculiarities of the Construction of the Infinitive with “to.”**

**12.** The root-infinitive accompanied by its sign **to**, is used with many verbs and adjectives and nouns, and even adverbs, to point out interest, purpose, object, consequence, reason, and the like.

We have come to hear you; He fell, never to rise again;  
What were you thinking of, to do this;  
He proceeded to count the ballots;  
He induced them to make the attempt;  
The man is become as one of us, to know good and evil;  
My hair doth stand on end, to hear her curses;  
How came you to be left behind;



To hear him talk, you would suppose he was master ;  
 They are ready to find fault and hard to please ;  
 He is undecided whether to go or stay ;  
 He was the first to come ; A well-to-do man ;  
 I have a work to do ; It was a path to guide their feet ;  
 He was not a man to call upon his friends.

The common use of an infinitive after **be**, to express something expected or required, is of this character : thus,

**This is to be done at once ; He is to die at sunrise :**  
 that is, **This is a thing for being done ;** and so on (compare 3 above).

Any adjective or adverb modified by **too** or **enough** may be followed by such an infinitive : thus,

**They are too many to be sacrificed, but not strong enough to conquer ;**

**I love you too much to let you go.**

This very common construction is the one in which the sign of the infinitive, the preposition **to**, retains most of its original and proper value, as meaning "unto, in order to, for the purpose of," and the like. But the construction has quite outgrown its natural limits, and the infinitive with **to** (like the substantive clause, XIV. 16. f.) is now used in numerous cases where with the infinitive in **-ing**, or with a noun of any kind, a different preposition would be necessary : thus,

**He failed to appear ; I have reason to suspect ;**

**He was glad to be there ;**

where we should say

failed of appearing, or of appearance ;  
 reason for suspecting, or for suspicion ;  
 glad at being there, or of his presence.

Other examples are

**We grieve to hear (but at hearing) ;**  
**A fool to think so (but for thinking) ;**  
**A proposal to send (but of sending) ;**  
**Ashamed to beg (but of begging) ;**  
**I laughed to see him (but at seeing him).**

This (like the similar use of the substantive clause, XIV. 16) may be called the construction of the infinitive as an **ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE** (XII. 73), its use as an adjunct to another word without any sign of connection between the two.

13. The value of the infinitive as an adverbial modifier is of the same nature as that of the adverbial clause (XIV. 23) ; thus, in

**He came to see me**

its use corresponds to that of the restrictive adverbial clause ; but in

**He came home, only to die—to find himself mistaken, etc.,**

its use corresponds to that of the descriptive co-ordinating clause.

14. The root-infinitive, with or without **to**, is used after a verb and its object, as a kind of adjunct to the latter, signifying an action in which it is concerned. Thus,

**They saw her depart ; Nobody imagined him to be listening ;**

**They declared him to have been killed ;**

**He prevailed on them to go ;**

**He waited for them to leave (VIII. 163).**

This important and widely used construction has more than one starting point. In such cases as

**I told him to go ; They forbade us to enter ;**

the infinitive is really the direct object, and the pronoun the indirect object of the verb, just as in the sentences

**I told him a story ; They forbade us entrance.**

In other cases, like

**I forced him to go ; They counselled us to remain ;**

the **to** has nearly its proper value of a preposition governing a noun, as in

**I forced him to the wall ; They counselled us to this action.**

But here again (as in the case described in 12 above), the construction has been carried much beyond its natural limits, as the object of the verb has come to be a kind of SUBJECT TO THE INFINITIVE ; since, for example,

**He believed his friend to have been wronged ;**

**I ordered the boy to be off ;**

are equivalent to

**He believed that his friend had been wronged ;**

**I ordered that the boy should be off.**

In any such case, the object can be turned into the subject of a passive verb-phrase, the infinitive (with **to**) remaining as an adverbial adjunct to the latter : thus,

**She was seen to depart ; The boy was ordered to be off ;**

**His friend was believed by him to have been wronged.**

The subject of the infinitive is also expressed after **for**: thus,  
**For him to act thus is improper; It is impossible for such a result to happen.**

The above construction is probably the result of inversion, having been originally

**To act thus is improper for him;**

and so on. For another explanation, see X. 11. b.

15. The root-infinitive is sometimes used in other more anomalous cases:

a. After **seem** and the like: thus,

**They seemed to tremble; Even the dogs appeared to know him.**

This construction is most like that of the predicate adjective.

b. After **as**, preceded by **so**, **such**, and the like: thus,

**It was so used as to be worn out;**

**He is such a fool as to believe the story.**

This is most like the use of an infinitive after an adjective or adverb with **too** or **enough**. See XVII.

c. After a relative or a dependent interrogative, in such phrases as

**He knows not when to go, or where to stay;**

**Make up your mind which to take.**

This may be explained as an ellipsis for **when he is to go**, and so on; and there may be a similar ellipsis in

**The wrath to come; A generation yet unborn;**

thus, **the wrath which is to come**, and so on.

d. After **have** in the sense of "be obliged,": thus,

**We have to leave in an hour.**

This is doubtless by an extension of such constructions as

**We have to perform a duty;**

and this is itself only a transformation of

**We have a duty to perform:**

that is a **duty for performing**. See 12 above.

e. After **had** followed by a word of comparison, especially as **lief**, **rather**, **better**, in such phrases as

**You had better be careful; I had rather go than stay.**

Here the infinitive is really the direct object of **had**, which is past subjunctive, and the comparative adjective (see IX. 7)

is an objective predicate modifying it: the meaning is "I should regard going a better thing than staying;" and so on.

f. Absolutely—and generally parenthetically—to express the reflection or intention of the speaker in regard to a statement, declaration, reminder, and so on, addressed to the reader or listener, and occasionally to the speaker himself; thus,

Not to keep you in suspense, he's in prison;  
To tell the truth, I am mistaken; To be sure, he is learned not wise;  
Will you help me? To be sure, I will;  
People are divided into two sorts, to wit, high people and low people;  
But, to return, my tears flowed fast;  
So much for the supper: and now to see that our beds are aired.

g. Absolutely, in exclamations, when the emotion of the speaker prevents the full expression of his meaning; thus,

Speak of Mortimer! Zounds, I will speak of him;  
How! not know the friends that served you!  
To talk to me of such stuff!—The man's an idiot;  
Well, Basil, only to think that we three should meet here prisoners!

Sometimes also the exclamatory infinitive has a subject, which is usually in the nominative case: thus,

She ask my pardon, poor woman! I ask hers with all my heart;  
Lewis marry Blanche! O boy, then where art thou?  
And he to turn monster of ingratitude and strike his lawful host!  
A silly girl to play the prude with me!

This use of the nominative is absolute, and is of the same nature as that of the nominative in the absolute construction described in XIII. 79 and 80, and 28 below, the infinitive referring to the nominative as the subject of the act or the state expressed by the verb.

16. A word (pronoun) in the predicate after an infinitive having a subject which is in the objective case, is also put in the objective, to agree with the word to which it relates (see XIII. 52): thus,

He supposed the offender to be me;  
For the offender to be him is an impossibility.

When the subject of the infinitive is omitted or is represented by a subjective possessive, there is nothing to decide the case of the infinitive complement; but the infinitive complement is here also to be valued as objective, for the subject of the infinitive, if expressed in the usual way, would be in the objective, and this is the regular construction in languages that are markedly inflectional: thus,

To be (or being) me is desirable; There is no doubt of its being him;  
The hope of being elected President; A desire to become the owner.

## PARTICIPLES.

## I.—Simple and Compound Forms.

17. As we have already seen (VIII. 40), there are two simple participles belonging to an English verb : thus,

**giving, given; loving, loved; being, been; having, had.**

One of these, ending always in **ing**, we called the IMPERFECT participle; the other, formed in a variety of ways, we called the PERFECT or the PASSIVE participle.

Participle-phrases, having constructions akin to those of the simple participles, are, for the imperfect participle, a PERFECT ACTIVE and a PROGRESSIVE PERFECT ACTIVE: as, for example,

**having given and having been giving;**

and for the perfect participle in its passive use, a PROGRESSIVE PASSIVE and a PERFECT PASSIVE: as for example,

**being given and having been given.**

## II.—Constructions.

18. The constructions of the participles differ less from those of ordinary adjectives than the constructions of the infinitives from those of ordinary nouns, since adverbial modifiers are taken in general by adjectives as well as by verbs, and only the imperfect participle (with its phrases) takes an object, or is followed by a predicate noun or adjective (except in verb-phrases with the auxiliary **have**).

19. In the PROGRESSIVE and PASSIVE verb-phrases, with the auxiliary **be**, the imperfect and passive participles have the same modifiers as they take in their more independent uses; and in the perfect verb-phrases, with the auxiliary **have**, the passive participle loses its peculiar character; and becomes like the imperfect, having the same constructions. Thus, we say

**seeming happy; giving a book;**

just as we say

**He was seeming happy; I am giving a book;**

but, though we say

**He has seemed happy; He had given a book;**

we cannot say

**seemed happy; given a book.**

This is because (as explained in VIII. 131) the participle with **have** was originally an objective predicate, modifying the direct object of the auxiliary; while the combination has now become

a merely mechanical one, a device for signifying certain varieties of past tense, and it can no longer be taken apart and parsed word for word (compare II. 42). Thus **I have loved** and **I had struck** show varieties of the tense of **loving** and **striking**, and no trace of their original passive meaning is left to the participles **loved** and **struck**; their uses are parallel with those of **loving** and **striking** in **I am loving**, **I was striking**.

20. Both the simple participles (not the participle-phrases also) are freely used as attributive adjectives, with only such modifiers as may be taken by all adjectives. When thus used, the participial form expresses merely the quality of the object, without reference to action or state as existing in time (compare VIII. 35). Examples are

a charming face;	a very loving heart;
his brightly shining arms;	singing birds;
a charmed snake;	a warmly loved friend;
brightly polished arms;	well sung songs.

A perfect participle, when thus used attributively, or in the manner of an ordinary adjective, sometimes has a fuller form than in its participial use (see IV. 40. a): thus in

a learned man, a blessed right,

we regularly pronounce the words with two syllables; while in

He learned his lessons, They blessed the day,

the same are spoken with only one. And we saw above (VIII. 84) that the old form of a perfect participle in **-en** is in many cases preserved in adjective use: thus,

A drunken man; A swollen face;

but

He has drunk the draught; His face has swelled.

Not a few words which are participles in form are so constantly used as ordinary adjectives that they hardly seem to us to be participles at all—sometimes, indeed, there is no verb in present use to which they belong: thus,

charming, interesting, trifling, cunning;  
beloved, forlorn, civilized, antiquated, past.

And we have seen (VII. 10. c) that a great many compound words take the participial ending **ed** to make them adjectives: thus,

barefooted, one-armed, chicken-hearted.

21. The simple participles (hardly ever the participle-phrases



also) are used in the various constructions of a predicate adjective.

Of the simple predicate, the best examples are the PROGRESSIVE and PASSIVE verb-phrases, such as

**He is beating, He is beaten,**

which are used in all constructions as if they were simple verb-phrases, active and passive.

Of the adverbial predicate (XIII. 28), examples are

**He came running to where she lay sleeping ;**

**It stands firmly planted ; The nephew sat buried in meditation ;**

**He burst out weeping.**

This construction shades off into one in which the participle in the predicate resembles in value an appositive adjective (see 22 below): thus,

**The brother stood by, weeping for her misfortunes.**

Of the objective predicate (XIII. 49), examples are

**I will have a doctor sent for ; He set us all laughing ;**

**He made his influence everywhere felt ;**

**He kept us waiting an hour ; They saw him leading the child ;**

For the construction and origin of the apparent imperfect participles in such sentences as

**The house is building ; We know what is doing there ;**

**The horses are putting to ;**

and of our progressive passive phrases: thus

**The house is being built ; We know what is being done there ;**

**The horses are being put to ;**

see VIII. 154-156.

22. The participles and participle phrases are used with the utmost freedom APPPOSITIVELY (XIII. 58), or with the construction of an adjective more loosely attached to the noun modified by it. Examples are

**She, dying, gave it to me ;**

**He, them espying, gan himself prepare ;**

**The enemy, beaten, fled, abandoning his camp ;**

**In which effort, not being a man of strong imagination, he failed ;**

**Sleeping or waking, must I still prevail.**

Often, instead of using an adjective or a perfect participle by itself as directly appositive, we insert the participle **being**, or its corresponding **having been**, as a kind of sign or auxiliary

of appositive construction, the adjective or perfect participle (very rarely an imperfect participle) then coming to be predicative after it. Thus

**John, being weary, has retired ;  
The enemy, having been beaten, fled.**

23. We have seen (XIII. 58) that the appositive adjective especially implies the suggestion of an added clause of which it is itself the predicate: and the participles and participle phrases used appositively, have very often the value of such clauses, being, in a manner, a substitute for them, which by securing brevity adds force to what we have to say. Thus, in place of some of the examples given in the preceding paragraph, we may say :

**She gave it to me when she died;  
As soon as he espied them, he gan himself prepare ;  
In which effort, as he was not a man of strong imagination,  
he failed ;  
Whether I sleep or wake, must I still prevail.**

24. Since, however, the participle-phrases in such a sentence may be the equivalent of different subordinate clauses: thus

**Sleeping or waking must I still prevail,**  
may be the equivalent of  
**When (or while or although, etc.) I am sleeping or waking, etc.;**  
in Modern English, ambiguity is avoided without sacrificing brevity, by using also the conjunctions that express the grammatical relations of dependent to principal clauses: thus

**When (or while, or although, etc.,) sleeping or waking, etc.**  
See also XVII.

25. In not a few cases, the construction with a participle modifying an object-noun (whether as objective predicate or as appositive) is equivalent to that of an infinitive with its objective subject (14 above), or of an infinitive in -ing with its subjective possessive (10 above). Thus,

- (1) I saw him get down from his horse ;
- (2) I saw his getting down from his horse ;
- (3) I saw him getting down from his horse.

In all these three nearly equivalent expressions, the pronouns *him* and *his* are logically (that is, according to the real sense) subject of the action expressed by the infinitive or the participle: the meaning is that "he got down from his horse, and I saw it." They are three different but related ways in which these verbal nouns and adjectives are made to play a part like that of real verbs in dependent clauses.

These sentences differ in meaning as follows : in (1) neither actor nor action attracts special attention, and there is no reference to the duration of the act : in (2) the action and in (3) the actor attract special attention, there being a reference in both to the duration of the act.

The passive participle in like manner plays the part of a passive verb : thus,

I saw him struck down by the assassin

is equivalent to

I saw how he was struck down, etc.,

or, in active phrase,

I saw the assassin strike (or striking) him down.

26. Hence (both after a verb and after a preposition) the two constructions, of an objective case modified by an imperfect participle and of a possessive modifying an infinitive in *-ing*, are to a certain extent interchangeable ; and the question sometimes arises as to which should be preferred. There are cases where both may be defended as equally proper ; but even among good writers (and yet more among careless ones), the one is occasionally found where more approved usage would favor the other : thus,

Pardon me blushing ;

The certainty of the old man interrupting him ;

The hope of society is in men caring for better things ;

where *my blushing*, *the old man's interrupting him*, and *men's caring* would doubtless be better.

As a general rule the best modern writers prefer to use the possessive when what the attention rests on is the action or the state expressed by the form in *-ing* and not on its subject, and when it is possible or proper to form a possessive case.

Hence the possessive is regularly used in the case of the inflected pronouns and of nouns that ordinarily form possessive cases (see V. 60): thus,

On account of my (your, his, everyone's, etc.) injuring John's brother ;

There is no fear of the dog's biting him.

And it is not used :

a. In the case of the uninflected pronouns : thus,

On account of this being so—of each (either, all, etc.) having done so ;

b. In the case of nouns that have not ordinarily possessive forms : thus,

He failed owing to ill health having spoiled his plans ;

There is no fear of injustice being done to his relations.

As, however, the modern tendency (see 1. 41) is to use the possessive form of the noun, usage is variable in this construction, and when the

possessive is not used we generally regard the noun and the participle as being more closely connected in meaning than those in e. below; thus,

There is no fear of injustice-being-done to his relations,  
just as in

I wish him-to go, and I saw him-go,  
we take the infinitive and the pronoun together (14 above), forgetting their true construction.

c. In such a sentence as

He insisted on the rule that no one should leave, being strictly observed; owing to the separation of the noun and the form in -ing and to the impossibility of using the case-sign after the appositive subordinate-sentence. It would, however, be correct to say,

He insisted on the rule's being observed;

He insisted on Mr. What-do-you-call-him's leaving the room,  
as Mr. What-do-you-call-him is distinctly felt to represent one notion.

d. When, by the use of the introductory there, there is an inversion of the logical order: thus,

There is no fear of there being a boy kept in.

e. And, of course, in such sentences as

He yields place to you (or John) speaking;

He saw me (or John) running home;

for in both of these what the attention rests on is the actor, the participial form merely expressing its condition. Indeed, the preferable construction for the former of these sentences is

He yields place to you when (you are) speaking, etc.

27. The participles and participle-phrases are used much oftener and much more freely than any other kind of appositional adjunct in making an ABSOLUTE construction (XIII. 79) with either noun or pronoun. Thus,

The teacher absenting himself, there was no school;

One of them having fallen, the rest ran away;

It being very cold, we made a fire;

or, with the passive participle,

This said, he sat down;

The signal being given, they started;

The ceremony having been completed, we dispersed.

Instead of a simple passive participle, or an adjective or other word or phrase, being taken directly with the noun or the pronoun in absolute construction, an auxiliary being or having been is very often introduced, the other then becoming a predicate

after it (just as in the ordinary appositive construction : see 22 above): for example,

**This having been said, he sat down ;**

**His heart being heavy with sorrow, etc. ;**

and so in other like cases.

28. Like the absolute construction already described (XIII. 79), the noun and the participle in the adjective construction express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action and are generally the equivalents of adverbial clauses : thus, the sentences in 27 above are equivalent to

**As the teacher absented himself, there was no school ;**

**When he had said this, he sat down ;**

and so on with the others.

And, as in the case of adverbial clauses (XIV. 23), the absolute construction is sometimes descriptive co-ordinating : thus,

**He left for the Continent, all his family accompanying him.**

29. Occasionally when the participle is an appositional adjunct of a personal pronoun, or of the indefinite one, the pronoun is omitted : thus,

(We or One) Assuming this to be true, what will follow ?

a construction to which, as we have already seen (X. 10. c.), we probably owe the prepositional use of such forms as

**saving, touching, concerning, respecting, etc.**

30. The absolute phrases in

**We sitting, as I said, the cock crew loud ;**

**I having hold of both, they whirl asunder ;**

**How can we be happy, thou being absent ?**

show that, in the absolute construction, the noun or the pronoun is now regularly in the nominative case. But instances of the objective also are sometimes found in good English writers, especially of an earlier time : thus, in Milton,

**This inaccessible high strength, the seat**

**Of Deity supreme, us dispossessed,**

**He trusted to have seized.**

And in Old English, as in all the other Aryan languages, the case of the noun in the absolute construction is invariably adverbial. When, however, English nouns lost their inflections, the adverbial character of this construction which had been marked by the ending was forgotten and the nominative of the personal pronoun came into use. See I. 63.

31. It may be added, finally, that the simple participles are in the same manner as ordinary adjectives used substantively (V. 71. b.) or as nouns. Thus,

**The living and the dead ; The poor and suffering ;**

**The lost, buried, and forgotten.**



## EXERCISES.

The parsing of infinitives and participles calls for no special explanations. Each is to be defined as being this or that infinitive or participle, or infinitive or participle phrase, belonging to such and such a verb, of such a conjugation, etc., as in the case of a verb; and the construction is then to be stated, in accordance with the principles laid down in this chapter.

## §§ 1-16.

1. Oh, it is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant. 2. To look at thee unlocks a warmer clime. 3. The toil of dropping buckets into empty wells and growing old in drawing nothing up. 4. He hopes to merit heaven by making earth a hell. 5. I can see that Mrs. Grant is anxious for her not finding Mansfield dull as winter comes on. 6. Some people never will distinguish between predicting an eclipse and conspiring to bring it on. 7. No matter who was there, go he would. 8. I don't wonder at people's giving him to me as a lover. 9. The brazen throat of war had ceased to roar. 10. Leaves have their time to fall, and flowers to wither at the north-wind's blast. 11. None knew her but to love her. 12. The king's persisting in such designs was the height of folly. 13. Freedom has a thousand charms to show. 14. He lies, with not a friend to close his eyes. 15. He used to read; he is not accustomed to speak. 16. We often had the stranger visit us to taste our gooseberry wine. 17. I might command you to be slain. 18. The Lord God had not caused it to rain on the earth. 19. He is anxious for us to remain. 20. There's no greater luxury in the world than being read to sleep. 21. He is wrong to think so. 22. He went on to tell his wrongs. 23. I am surprised to hear him say so. 24. He is not the man I took him to be, to act thus. 25. Where were your wits, to make this mistake? 26. He is much pleased to meet you. 27. He grieves to see you in distress. 28. I have a joke to tell you. 29. To look at him, you would not think so. 30. He failed to see the joke.

## §§ 1-31.

1. The neighbors, hearing what was going forward, came flocking about us. 2. The melting Phoebe stood wringing her hands. 3. I found her straying in the park. 4. In other hands I have known it triumphed in and boasted of with reason. 5. I'll have thee hanged to feed the crow. 6. To seek philosophy in Scripture is to seek the dead among the living. 7. It is more blessed to give than to receive. 8. They set him free without his ransom paid. 9. There the wicked cease from troubling. 10. With my minstrel brethren fled, my jealousy of song is dead. 11. Finding myself suddenly deprived of the pleasures of the town, I grew dispirited. 12. Her voice is truth, told by music; there are jingling instruments of falsehood. 13. Things are lost in the glare of day, which I can make the sleeping see. 14. He could not have been impressed with her, to have forgotten her so soon. 15. Our cradle is the starting place; life is the running of the race. 16. The French, having been dispersed in a gale, had put back to Toulon. 17. That arose from the fear of my cousin hearing these matters. 18. Granted



that men continuing as they are, there must be war; what then? 19. It is too soon for the news to have reached him. 20. The hour concealed, and so remote the fear, death still draws nearer, never seeming near. 21. They gave him knowledge of his wife's being there. 22. She loves to sit up late, either reading or being read to. 23. I dare thee but to breathe upon my love. 24. A great many thoughts came crowding into my mind. 25. Their being neighbors only made it more embarrassing. 26. Don't stay wasting my time. 27. He is too long winded to be effective. 28. He began cutting bread and butter, and went on doing so. 29. He came home, to find the doors locked. 30. He took advantage of my absence to lock the doors. 31. He was seen lying where the fallen trees may be found. 32. To fly from need not be to hate mankind. 33. Vice is a monster of so frightful mien, as, to be hated, needs but to be seen. 34. I would I were to die! 35. He was the last to appear.

1. Whether it is worth knowing is another matter. 2. I had rather die than do it. 3. Beware of hasty gathering of riches. 4. The sea begins, and there is no more jumping ashore. 5. The dropping her hands ruined us. 6. Returning were as tedious as go o'er. 7. The church was three years building. 8. Morn in the white wake of the morning star came furrowing all the orient into gold. 9. I see men as trees walking. 10. Why stay we thus, prolonging of their lives? 11. My lord of Cromwell is a-coming over. 12. His heart stopped heating. 13. He broke out crying. 14. He kept looking on. 15. For not to have dipped in Lethe lake could save the son of Thetis from to die. 16. Will't please you pass along. 17. Have is have. 18. Truth's in a well; best leave that well alone. 19. You need not to have pricked me. 20. You had as good make a point of first giving away yourself. 21. Had you rather that Cæsar were living, and die all slaves, than that Cæsar were dead and, etc. 22. To be weak is miserable, doing or suffering. 23. How! how! we steal a cup! take heed of what you say. 24. Yet why complain! 25. What! be a King and dare not! 26. All the yachts now building are to be opponents of *The Thistle*. 27. O fool! to think God hates the worthy mind. 28. O to forget her! 29. Pshaw! this fellow here to interrupt us. 30. To speak exactly, he is utterly mistaken. 31. He is, so to speak, a fool for his pains. 32. He is mistaken, not to say prejudiced. 33. The company were about to leave, being then paying their reckoning. 34. Worse than that, he fell sick. 35. Shame to say, men better than he do this. 36. Fool that I was, to put trust in a Roman. 37. She is like to make a match of it with the parson. 38. For a wonder, he was picked up alive. 39. He objected to there being an appeal. 40. No sooner said than done.

## GENERAL QUESTIONS.

### 1. Discuss:

a. All notions expressed by language are notions of activity, or notions of existence. The notion of activity is expressed by a verb when the activity is contemplated as bearing on the relations to the speaker, of person, tense, and mode. It is expressed by an adjective when it is not thus related to the speaker. The notion of existence is expressed by a substantive.

b. Of Grammar, the essential parts, if not the whole, are Etymology and Syntax; for Orthography relates to the mere arrangement of letters for the arbitrary representation of certain sounds, and Prosody to the æsthetic use of language.

### 2. Explain the peculiarities in the meanings of the verbs in the following:

1. James reads well. 2. The book reads well. 3. The waves break on the sea-shore. 4. The box breaks open. 5. He breaks silence. 6. He breaks bread. 7. Fare thee well. 8. He over-slept himself. 9. The bread ate tough. 10. The experiment was making. 11. This lodging likes me well. 12. The shoe gives. 13. This doctrine obtained last year. 14. He went mad.

3. Explain Addison's remark: "The single letter *s* on many occasions does the office of a whole word, and represents the *his* and *her* of our forefathers."

### 4. Discuss the etymology and syntax of

two, twain, both, ten, eleven, first, hundred, dozen, score, many.

5. Distinguish between the forms of inflection in New and Old verbs, and give what reason you can for the difference. Of each of the inflected forms of a New verb, tell what you know of its history and of its use in the expression of our thoughts.

6. Account for our mode of forming ordinals.

7. Name the verbs originally pasts that have come to be used as presents, and account, when possible, for the modern usage.

8. Use the words

**book, but, thou, he, who, why, enough, feet, ought, knew, best,**

as examples of some means of distinguishing words in Modern English that belonged to the language of its earliest Teutonic forms.

9. Distinguish the successive periods of the introduction of a Latin element into English and illustrate by examples the effect of each upon the language.

10. Outline the history of the possessive case in English, and define the present limits of its use.

11. After reading chapter XIX., justify the statement that the following words are from the same root :

**agent, ache ; cell, hall ; capacious, have ; client, loud ; host, guest ; divine, Tuesday ; dromedary, tramp ; torture, throw ; fact, do ; pastor, food ; plover, flew ; pen, feather ; putrid, foul.**

12. After reading chapter XIX., give more briefly the rules in V. 3., a., b., and c.; and VIII. 85; and account for the phonetic changes detailed in VIII. 88-93, and for the italicised letters in **contemplate, scramble, egotist, esquire.**

13. Discuss the mode of writing each of the following :

**smoking-car, homespun, unlooked-for, High Schools Act.**

14. Explain and illustrate the following statements :

a. English speech and English writing have always been at odds, and probably must remain so.

b. Etymology based on alphabetical characters often goes astray ; Etymology has to do with language-sounds, not with written characters.

c. VOWEL VARIATION is of two kinds : (1) The "shunting" of sounds, as it were, upon different lines of development ; (2) The modification of one sound by another which stands in a subsequent syllable.

d. CONSONANT VARIATION is also of two kinds : (1) *Permutation*, or change within a class of consonants ; (2) *Transmutation*, or change from one class of consonants to another.

15. Discuss and account for the regularities in the following :

1. Let a gallows be made of fifty cubits high. 2. Her seemed she scarce had been a day one of God's choristers. 3. Him I accuse the city ports by this hath entered. 4. His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds of the sky. 5. He saw a certain vessel descending unto him, as it had been a cloud. 6. As good kill a man as kill a good book. 7. The combatants being kin half stints their strife before they do begin. 8. Well hast thou acquit thee. 9. Good gentlemen, look fresh and merrily. 10. Of all men else have I avoided thee. 11. Than whom there is none greater. 12. This youth, howe'er distressed, appears he hath good ancestors. 13. Where such as thou mayest find him. 14. You hear the learned Bellario what he writes. 15. O monstrous beast, how like a swine he lies ! 16. I am not worthy of the wealth I owe. 17. And it came to pass about an eight days after these sayings. 18. His nerves is exhausted. 19. For, by the faith I shall to God, etc. 20. I learn song ; I can but small grammar. 21. Anger is like a full hot horse, who, being allowed his way, self-mettle tires him. 22. He lived—such living as it was!—in a log-cabin. 23. Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day that cost thy life, my gallant grey. 24. By Naomi her instructor, Ruth lieth at Boaz his feet.

## CHAPTER XVI.

## INTERROGATIVE AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

## CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

1. The only kind of sentence of which we have thus far treated is that by which something is asserted or declared, and which is, therefore, called the **ASSERTIVE** or **DECLARATIVE** sentence. But (as has been already more than once pointed out) this is not the only kind of sentence that we use.

Instead of making a matter the subject of assertion, we sometimes make it the subject of inquiry. If we want to know about anything, we do not need to (though we always may) make a statement of our want : saying, for example,

**I desire to know from you whether John is here ;**  
we say instead,

**Is John here ?**

Again, we express a command or a request without putting it in the form of an assertion. Instead of saying

**I wish (or command) that you come here,**  
we may say simply

**Come here !**

These are fundamentally different forms of sentence, because they lack the assertion or predication which is the essential of an ordinary sentence. Information, inquiry, command—these are the three established uses of communication between man and man, each having its own form of expression.

**I.—The Interrogative Sentence.**

2. The **INTERROGATIVE** sentence, that by which enquiry is made, differs least from the assertive, has least that is peculiar to itself. Like the assertive, it is made up of a subject-nominative and a predicate verb, each admitting all the adjuncts or modifiers that are to be found in the ordinary sentence, and the verb having the same variety of forms and phrases as these.

The variation of the interrogative sentence from the assertive is of two kinds.

### I. KINDS OF QUESTIONS AND THEIR ANSWERS.

3. First: if the question is as to the predication itself, or whether a certain thing which would be expressed by the sentence in its assertive forms, is or is not true, then the change is simply one of arrangement, the subject being put after the verb instead of before it. Thus, for example,

**Is he here? Did he arrive yesterday?**

**Will he go to town to-morrow?**

4. To such questions, the natural answer is the very same sentence in assertive form, with or without the adverb **not** added: thus,

**He is here; He did arrive yesterday;**

**He will not go to town to-morrow.**

Or, for brevity's sake, we use the simple **RESPONSIVES** (IX. 12 and 13), **yes** or **no**, the one in place of the full affirmative reply, the other of the negative.

5. A variation of this kind of sentence is the **ALTERNATIVE** interrogative, by which, of two or more things thought of as possible, the one actually true is sought to be known: thus, for example,

**Did he arrive yesterday, or to-day?**

**Will he go by rail, or in his carriage?**

Here the answer is the assertion of one or of the other alternative, or the denial of the remaining one or of both: thus,

**He arrived yesterday; He will go, not by rail, but in his carriage.**

6. Second: if the question is as to the subject of a given predication, or as to its object, or any other of the adjuncts or modifiers either of the subject-nominative or of the predicate verb, then the enquiry is made by means of some form of the interrogative pronoun, or of the interrogative adjective, or by an interrogative adverb. Thus, for example,

**Who is here? When did he arrive?**

**Where is he going to-morrow? At what inn will he put up?**

**What does he want?**

7. The natural answer to such questions is a corresponding

assertion, with the desired subject or object or other adjunct put in place of the interrogative word : thus,

**John is here ; He arrived yesterday ;  
He will put up at the best inn ;**

and so on.

8. In the language of every day life, an assertion has often added to it a question, consisting generally of an abbreviated sentence which expresses the expectation of what is stated in the assertive sentence : thus,

**This man is comeliest, is he not ? A shocking thing hunger is, isn't it ?**

**Why ! you won't fight him, will you Bob ? 'Tis right, old boy, is it ?**

## II. ARRANGEMENT OF THE WORDS : CONDITIONAL INVERSION.

9. As the examples show, the regular place of the interrogative word, of whatever kind, is at the beginning of the sentence, or as near it as possible. And then, as in the other kind of interrogative sentence, the subject, unless it be itself the interrogative word, is put after the verb.

10. This order of arrangement, as it *inverts* the usual position of the two essential elements of the sentence, the subject-nominal and the verb, is called the *INVERTED* order ; or the sentence is said to be an *inverted* one. Its special use is in interrogation, but it is also found elsewhere.

Thus (by a usage which has grown out of the interrogative one), it is sometimes employed in stating a *CONDITION*, or in giving that meaning which we usually express by *if*: for example,

**Had'st thou been here, he had not died ;  
Were the King dead, his son would succeed ;  
None will listen, criest thou never so loud ;**

instead of

**if thou had'st been here ; if the King were dead ;  
if (or though) thou criest never so loud.**

This is called a case of *CONDITIONAL INVERSION*, or the sentence is said to be an *INVERTED CONDITIONAL* sentence.

The change of construction from

**Did you see him ? Then you would know this ;**

first to

**Did you see him ? You would know this ;**

and then to

**Did you see him, you would know this ;**



is one easily made. In older English, indeed, this usage was more common than at present : thus,

*Have ye good tydynges, mayster? than we be glad.*

In Modern English, however, the question is felt to be such, only when the tense is present indicative, and then the mark of interrogation is used : thus

**Is any afflicted? Let him pray.**

**Is my young master a little out of order? The first question is, etc.**

Such sentences as

**Should you see him, you would find him changed;**

**Be it a trifle, it should be well done;**

owe the order of the subordinate clause to the original interrogative construction, and the mood to the later conditional construction.

On the supposition of an original question, we may also explain the use of *whether*—or in such sentences as

**Whether you go or stay, all will be well,**

*whether* being originally interrogative and the subordinate clause being now equivalent to “if you either go or stay.”

11. The regular and usual order of the interrogative sentence is sometimes changed, generally with some change of meaning.

Thus, a sentence in the assertive order is often made interrogative simply by the tone in which it is uttered : for example,

**He is not gone yet? He will put up where?**

which may express surprise, as if

**Is it possible that he is not gone yet?**

or may request the repetition of a statement not understood, as if

**Where did you say that he will put up?**

or something of the kind.

### III.—CLASSES.

12. The interrogative sentence, like the assertive, may be compound, or complex, or compound-complex, interrogative clauses being used instead of the independent assertive clauses of such sentences. But an interrogative clause cannot be dependent—except, indeed, in the case (a very rare one) of a dependent clause of addition (XIV. 14. c) : thus,

**He lives at Paris—where is it possible that you have never been?**

13. Often, however, we find the interrogative word in an objective substantive clause, the order of the words in the principal clause being that of an interrogative sentence : thus,

**Who do you say that he is? Where do you say he has gone?**



In Modern, and more frequently still in older English, this form of expression has led to confusion in the construction of the interrogative: thus,

*And he axed them, and seiðe, whom seien the people that  
I am?—WYCLIFFE.*

And . . . he said, whom think ye that I am?—AUTH. VERS. BIBLE.

## II.—The Imperative Sentence.

14. The IMPERATIVE sentence, expressing a command, requirement, or request, has for its characteristic a special form of the verb, namely the IMPERATIVE MOOD, which takes the same adjuncts or modifiers as one of the other verbal forms.

The imperative is not in our present English marked by a distinct inflection or other sign: it is always the same as the simple infinitive, or the STEM of the verb, thus,

**give, love, be, go, do, have.**

For the imperative, as for the other moods, are made EMPHATIC, PROGRESSIVE, and PASSIVE verb-phrases: thus,

**love ; do love, be loving, be loved ;  
go ; do go, be going, be gone ;**

An imperative verb-phrase is made even from **be**: thus,

**Do be still ; Do not be gone long.**

And with **let**, as has been already shown (VIII. 145), an imperative verb-phrase is formed to intimate a wish or direction in the third person, and even in the first, for both the active and the passive conjugation ; thus,

**Let us (or, sometimes, me) give ; Let him (or her, etc.) give ;  
Let the drums be beaten ; Let the witnesses be summoned.**

### I. CLASSES.

15. The imperative sentence (like the interrogative), may have the same variety of construction as the assertive, being compound, complex, or compound-complex. But an imperative clause can be dependent only when it is simply additive (compare 12 above): thus,

**He will be here to-morrow, when please call again ;  
It is at the tenth page, which see.**

16. Like the interrogative, the imperative sentence is sometimes substituted for a conditional clause: thus,

**Fling but a stone, the giant dies ;  
Let earth unbalanced from her orbit fly,  
Planets and suns run lawless through the sky.**

And the imperatives suppose, admit, grant, and say, (some of which approximate in value to conjunctions), are used to introduce conditional clauses : thus,

**Suppose he fail, what matter does it make ?**

**Say I be entertained, what then shall follow ?**

In such sentences, again, as

**Say (you) what you will, you will fall,**

the say may be valued either as imperative or as subjunctive.

17. But the proper imperative is by no means the only form of expression by which a speaker signifies a command or a demand, or seeks to control or to influence the action of another.

The same meaning can be conveyed by assertive expressions like

**Thou shalt go ; You must give ;**

which are in themselves simple statements that there exists a necessity for such and such action on the part of the person addressed ; and, of course, the same statement, with something of the same imperative meaning, may be made in the third person, or even in the first (see VIII. 116 and 122).

And, as has been already shown (VIII. 115. a), will may also be used in the principal clause of an assertive sentence to express a softened command or direction given to another, it being courteously assumed that the person spoken to or of is willing to do as he is directed, and the meaning of the speaker being determined by the tone in which he speaks : thus,

**No one will speak till I return ;**

**You will all be sure to be present to-morrow.**

Sometimes, indeed, will may be used in a question which is really a request, for we enquire as to the will of the person addressed : thus,

**Will you kindly do it for me ?**

**You will be sure not to forget it ?**

and in

**You will be sure to be there, will you not ?**

we have an assertion with a question added, the expression forming what is really a request. The imperative and the interrogative sentence, therefore, shade into each other.

18. The direct command of the imperative, moreover, shades off into expressions of more or less forcible or imperative wish, or desire, or imprecation.

In these senses the present subjunctive is much used, especially in antique and poetic style and in certain established phrases: thus,

Part we in friendship from your land;  
Be we bold and make despatch;  
Some heavenly power guide us hence:  
Thy will be done; The Lord bless thee;  
Well, then, so be it; Perish the thought.

This, as we have already seen (VIII. 27), is the OPTATIVE use of the subjunctive. It is limited to the first person plural and the third person of both numbers—unless, indeed (which would be correct enough), we regard the proper imperative, when it has its subject expressed, as being rather an optative subjunctive.

As the examples show, the subject always follows the verb in the first person, and may either precede or follow (more often the latter) in the third.

The past subjunctive has also sometimes an optative sense, but only in incomplete expression (compare VIII. 134, and see XVII.): thus,

O that he were with us!

19. In ordinary speech, instead of the optative subjunctive we generally use the verb **may** as optative auxiliary, always putting the subject after it: thus, for example,

May I retain your friendship! May we part in peace!  
May there be no ill-will between us! May the thought perish!  
May some heavenly power guide us home!

With such phrases, the imperative verb-phrase with **let** is generally equivalent in meaning and interchangeable.

In reference to the propriety of the interchange of the subjunctive, the potential, and the imperative, in the expression of a wish, see VIII. 20 and 139. b.

### III.—The Exclamatory Interrogative Sentence.

20. The interrogative pronouns and adjectives **who** and **what** (not **which**, nor **whether**), and the interrogative adverbs (especially **how**), are often used in an EXCLAMATORY sense—that is, to make an *exclamation*, expressing some strong feeling, such as surprise, admiration, disapprobation: thus, for example,

What a sad sight was this! How are the mighty fallen!

Such are to be called exclamatory sentences in the interrogative form.

As the interrogative sentence shades into the imperative (see 17 above), so also the interrogative and the exclamatory shade into each other. The normal question expects an answer, and the normal exclamation expresses merely the speaker's emotion. The RHETORICAL question assumes an answer in accordance with the speaker's judgment, and its value is perceived from the context : thus,

Who is here that would not be a Roman ?

and in such sentences as

Who could ever have believed it !

it is a matter of doubt whether we should use a note of interrogation or of exclamation.

The form may also be that of a dependent clause : thus,

What a sad sight this was ! How the mighty are fallen !

But this is an instance of incomplete expression : as if it were  
See what a sad sight this was ! It is strange, how the mighty are fallen !

Its consideration, therefore, like that of the optative past, belongs to XVII.

#### IV.—The Interrogative and the Imperative Sentence in Indirect Narration.

21. As in the case of assertive sentences (XIV. 18-20), questions or commands may be expressed as coming indirectly from the speaker thereof, and, when thus expressed, they exhibit a different construction : thus,

What do you say ? Has he gone ?

Let him go ; Thou shalt go ;

become, when expressed indirectly,

He asks (has asked, or will ask) what you say ; whether (or if)  
he has gone ;

He asked (or had asked) what you said ; whether (or if)  
he had gone ;

He commands, etc., that you let him go, or you to let him go ;  
that thou shalt go, or thee to go ;

He commanded, etc., that you (should) let him go, or you to let  
him go ; that thou shouldst go, or thee to go.

These examples show

a. That indirect questions are introduced by **whether**, or **if**, if there is no interrogative word in the direct construction ; and that indirect commands, when expressed in the form of a dependent clause, are introduced by **that**, and that they may also be expressed by an infinitive phrase with its subject.

b. That the verbs in the dependent clauses follow the rule for the sequence of tenses already given (XIV. 19. b.) for assertive sentences in indirect narration.

But in questions the indirect construction is sometimes used for the direct: thus,

Paul whispered to Florence, as she wrapped him up before the door was opened, Did she hear them? Would she ever forget it?

when the regular forms would be the quoted sentences:

“Do you hear them?” “Will you ever forget it?”

## EXERCISES.

After defining a sentence as interrogative or imperative, we may proceed to analyze it and describe its members according to the methods which have been followed hitherto. An interrogative sentence may be re-arranged in the assertive order, and divided into subject and predicate. But an imperative sentence without an expressed subject cannot be so treated. If we have, for example, the sentence,

Give me that book;

we must say that it is an imperative sentence, composed of the imperative verb *give* (with its complements), used without a subject, for the purpose of giving a command to the person or persons addressed. An inverted conditional and an inverted optative clause should be defined as such.

The values of the modal forms and phrases in the following, as well as any syntactical peculiarities of words or phrases, should also be discussed:

### §§ 1-21.

1. So Heaven decrees; with Heaven who can contest? 2. Peace! what can tears avail? 3. Lives there who loves his pain? 4. Shall I go, or will you! 5. What fear we then? what doubt we to increase his utmost ire? 6. I ask you: are you innocent or guilty? 7. Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it: why hast thou made me thus? 8. He asked me wherewith should a young man cleanse his way. 9. He enquired who had sent him. 10. “Tell me,” said he, “who has sent you?” 11. Harken! he speaketh yet; O friend, wilt thou forget—friend more than brother—how hand in hand we’ve gone, heart with heart linked in one, all to each other? 12. They leave us the dangers—which how long will you bear! 13. And see, he cried, the welcome, fair guests, that waits you here. 14. Be aye sticking in a tree, Jack; it’ll be growing while ye’re sleeping. 15. Reap we not the ripened wheat, till yonder hosts are flying. 16. Let us go round, and let the sail be slack, the course be slow. 17. Let the waters under the heaven be gathered together. 18. The bridegroom cometh; go ye out to meet him. 19. To solemn feast I will invite him—where be thou present. 20. Green be the turf above thee! 21. Mayest thou find with Heaven the same forgiveness as with thy father here! 22. Here sleep the brave!



23. Had I a daughter worthy of such a husband, he should have such a wife. 24. Wast thou a monarch, me wouldst thou make thy queen? 25. Thus far shalt thou go and no further. 26. Would that thou hadst gone! 27. For us how blest, how happy at all seasons, could like aim uphold our spirits. 28. Oh, what a joy it were, in vigorous health to have a body! 29. What need we fear who knows it? 30. I would that my tongue could utter the thoughts that arise in me. 31. Be thou a spirit of health, or goblin damned, bring with thee airs from heaven, or blasts from hell, be thy intents wicked or charitable, thou comest in such a questionable shape, that I will speak to thee. 32. Time be thine, and thy best graces spend it at thy will. 33. Monday's election was a knock-down blow to the liquor interest, and no mistake. 34. This deserves mention if only for its incongruity with the rest of his life. 35. If for no other reason, he should be hurled from office because he has caused a war of races. 36. Alive, he stood fire; and he died game.

1. What if this cursed hand were thicker than itself with brother's blood; is there not rain enough in the sweet heavens to wash it white as snow? 2. It might be the pate of a politician, might it not? 3. If it be so, Laertes,—as how should it be so? how otherwise?—will you be ruled by me? 4. Is not thy master with him? who, were't so, would have informed for preparation. 5. Wake Duncan with thy knocking! I would thou couldst. 6. Go not my horse the better, I must become a borrower of the night. 7. Thou shalt not live, that I may tell pale-hearted fear it lies, and sleep in spite of thunder. 8. Pray God it be. 9. Dost thou think, if I would stand against thee, would the reposal of any trust, virtue, or worth in thee make thy words faith'd? 10. O heavens! that this treason were not! 11. What might import my sister's letter to him? 12. What should it know of death? 13. What sin would be upon her head if she should suffer thus? 14. Wretched man that I am, who shall deliver me?

## GENERAL QUESTIONS.

### 1. Account for the irregularities in the following sentences :

1. Those kind of apples don't suit me. 2. Neither precept nor principle are so forcible as habit. 3. She is older than me. 4. I am a plain, blunt man, that love my friend. 5. This measure gained the king as well as the people's approbation. 6. James is the strongest of the two boys. 7. Let thou and I the latter try. 8. He has not done nothing wrong to-day. 9. Every one must judge of their own feelings. 10. He I must punish, but she I will forgive. 11. No one was to blame but I. 12. Classics are important. 13. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade. 14. He walks like I do. 15. Did you expect to have heard such a speech? 16. Neither will he do this nor that. 17. The water has bursted the hogshead. 18. I never have nor never will forget it. 19. Bertrand is—I dare not name it! 20. This book is yourn or hisn, I cant say which. 21. And he charged him to tell no man; but go thy way. 22. But now my lingering feet revenge denies. 23. He is a fool of a fellow. 24. What sort of a man is he? 25. The iron and wooden bridge are both impassable.

### 2. Criticize the following :

- a. The plural *we* does not denote several I's, but I and some one else.
- b. In the sentence "Agnes is a tall girl" we state that Agnes has the quality of tallness.
- c. The verb is the most highly inflected of all the parts of speech, because it makes a statement and this statement may be viewed as being done by different persons, at different times, and under different conditions.
- d. Those variations of form in verbs by means of which we show the manner in which an action or state indicated by the verb is asserted of the subject, are called *moods*.



e. When a participle forms with a noun (or pronoun), a clause grammatically detached from the rest of the sentence, it is said to be in the nominative absolute.

f. Completeness and incompleteness of action or state are the only relations that can be expressed by the tenses of the infinitive and participle.

g. Infinitives are used as adjectives when they limit a noun or pronoun, as "a knife to cut with."

h. **When, while, where, etc.**, stand in the same relation to other adverbs as the relative pronoun does to the noun.

i. A verbal noun takes after it the same case as the verb from which it is derived : as, "On being elected king, he was satisfied." Here "king" is pred. nom. because the passive form "to be elected" may take a pred. nom. after it.

j. If one of the nouns (or pronouns) is plural it is put last and the pronoun is plural : as, "Neither Spain nor the United States were wanting in *their* efforts to preserve peace."

k. To prevent ambiguity, the relative should be placed near its antecedent : as, "The soldier who was tried for the offence, who disobeyed his officer" should be "The soldier who, etc."

1. Place the adjective as near as possible to the noun it modifies : as, "a good glass of milk" should be "a glass of good milk."

m. When the immediate nominative of a verb is a relative pronoun, which may refer equally to two antecedents of different numbers, the verb takes the person and number of the antecedent nearest the relative : as, "He was one of the boys that struck the tramp."

n. **Alone** when used adverbially should be placed immediately after the verb it modifies : as, "He was sitting alone (that is, "by himself") in the room."

o. Verbs of doubt, deny, fear, should not be followed by **but, but that, but what, for that**. **Lest** after a verb of fear stands for **that not**.

p. **Do** ought to be used as a substitute for other verbs, only when the ellipsis of the preceding verb can be supplied. Consequently, in "I did not say as some have done," "done" should be "said."

3. Illustrate the following statement by means of a series of typical examples :

The exceptions of grammar are not infractions of laws, but instances of laws that, in accordance with higher laws, are becoming, or have become obsolete.

4. Select typical sentences, other than those given in the text as examples, to illustrate the various kinds of subject and predicate complements.

5. "Logic deals with the meaning of language, Grammar with its forms and constructions, and Rhetoric with its persuasiveness." Explain this statement by reference to the sentences : "Great is Diana of the Ephesians"; and "Diana of the Ephesians is great."

6. Explain the statement that the prefix **a** has at least thirteen different values in English, of which the following are examples :

adown, afoot, along, arise, achieve, avert, amend, alas, abyss,  
ado, aware, apace, avast.

7. Justify Ben Jonson's statement : "Z is a letter often heard among us, but seldom seen."

## CHAPTER XVII.

## IRREGULAR EXPRESSION.

## ABBREVIATED AND INCOMPLETE EXPRESSION.

1. So far we have been dealing mainly with the regular forms taken by the complete sentence : we have now to consider some of the chief irregularities and their causes.

2. A sentence or a clause is complete when it has its own subject and its own predicate, both given in full. But we often express ourselves by sentences which are not complete, but lack more or less of the regular structure of a sentence.

3. Sentences are rendered incomplete chiefly by ABBREVIATION—that is to say, they are made shorter or briefer (*hence the name*) by omitting parts which it seems to us unnecessary to express, because, either through the connection or in some other way, the meaning is well enough understood without them.

A part of a sentence which is thus omitted, because the mind *understands* it to be there, or understands the sentence as if it were there, without needing to express it, is said to be UNDERSTOOD. And the omission is often called an ELLIPSIS (that is “a leaving out”).

4. The abbreviation of sentences, in one way or another, is made in all styles of speaking and writing, and in sentences of every kind. But it is especially common :

a. In familiar colloquial speech and in conversation, because there the mutual understanding of speaker and hearer, and the aid of tone and gesture, do much to fill out the expression ; in this way we *economize* our utterance.

b. In lively and picturesque, and especially in impassioned or emotional speech, because there it is sought to *impress* the mind more strongly by putting before it only the emphatic or most important ideas.

Exceptional abbreviations are met with in the language of every-day life, which is especially economical, and in poetry, which is especially the language of feeling.

**I.—Abbreviation for Economy.****I.—TO AVOID REPETITION.***I.—In Co-ordinate Clauses.*

5. The simplest and commonest kind of abbreviation, which is used in almost every sentence we make, is that by which, when two or more co-ordinate clauses following one another would be made up in part by repeating the same words, these words are omitted in all but one, and left to be understood, or supplied from the connection, in the others.

Thus, for example, in the following sentences we should usually leave out the words which are put in brackets :

**He is present, she (is) absent ; He is present, she (is) not (present) ;**

**The boy despises the infant ; the man (despises) the boy ;  
the philosopher (despises) both ;**

**I have something to sing, (I have) something to say ;**

**These are dark (woods, these are) gloomy (woods, these are)  
unfrequented woods.**

But, of course, such an abbreviation as the following is inadmissible :

**The matter was hushed up, the servants (were)  
forbidden to speak.**

6. Then, as we more often connect the clauses together by means of conjunctions when they are fully expressed, so we also make great use of conjunctions in connecting the fragments of them that remain when the unnecessary repetitions are omitted ; thus, for example :

**I am not sick, but well ;**

**He is good, and handsome, and clever ;**

**or He is good, handsome, and clever ;**

**Read not to contradict nor to believe,  
but to weigh and consider.**

By this means, conjunctions, which are originally connectives of clauses only, have come to be, on a very large scale, connectives of words and phrases which are co-ordinate—that is to say, which have the same office or construction—in a single clause.

And we have seen (XI. 1. b) that words of all the parts of speech, and in constructions of every kind—subjects, predicate verbs, objects, modifying words, prepositions, and so on—are thus bound together by conjunctions within the limits of one clause.

7. As we call a sentence COMPOUND when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate clauses, usually connected together by conjunctions, so we call any member of a sentence or a clause a

COMPOUND MEMBER or element when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate words (usually bound together by conjunctions). Thus we have a compound subject in

**Friends and foes rushed through together;**

a compound predicate adjective in

**They were lovely and pleasant in their lives;**

a compound prepositional connective in

**He was seen both before and after the battle;**

a compound adverb-phrase in

**He was seen before the battle but not after it;**

and so on.

We should never think of calling the sentence itself compound because any of its less essential members, any adjunct or modifier either of the subject or of the predicate verb, is compound; nor, in general, if the subject itself is compound; nor even if the predicate verb is compound, provided the sentence is brief and not complicated, as in

**He (went) and I went;**

**I went and (I) came;**

**He (went) and I went, and (he came and I) came;**

(Here the words in brackets show what would be added to make the expression complete). But in

**I arose, after a long and refreshing sleep, at six o'clock this morning, while the dew was shining on the grass, and having made my toilet and despatched a hasty breakfast, went out into my orchard to see what damage yesterday's gale might have done to my fruit trees;**

it would doubtless be practically better to regard the omitted subject I as understood before went, and to describe the sentence as compound. The verb, the word of assertion, is, above all others, the essential element of a sentence; and it is perfectly proper to hold that there are as many sentences (or clauses) as there are verbs in anything we say.

8. The co-ordinating conjunction **and** is used far oftener than all the other conjunctions together in thus compounding the elements of sentences. And so distinctly do we feel that it binds together into one the words composing a compound element that, as has been seen above (XIII. 20. (2) a), the verb belonging to a subject so compounded is made plural, as if it had a plural subject.

There are also other combinations which cannot be taken apart into single clauses: for example,

**We thought Tom and Dick and Harry a noisy trio;**

**He confounds right and wrong;**

**Three and eighteen make one-and-twenty;**

**He sat between his sister and his brother.**

Such combinations with any other conjunction are only rare and irregular.

*II.—In Dependent Clauses.*

9. But even the subordinating conjunctions are sometimes used to join a mere word or phrase which represents an abbreviated dependent clause to that on which the clause would depend: thus,

Are you mad? If not, speak to me;  
Though often forbidden, he kept coming;  
He fell while bravely defending the flag;  
It can be done, though not without trouble;  
Did you go? If not, you may remain now;

that is, if you are not mad, though he was forbidden, etc.; though it cannot be done without trouble, etc.

In all such cases if we are to parse the words or clauses, we must supply the ellipsis.

Most commonly this form of ellipsis is found in the case of the verb *be*, the simple copula between a subject and a predicate word (XIII. 26. a), along with a subject which is the same as that of the other clause. And, in all such cases, the fact of an omission of what might be and more often is expressed, is much more distinctly present to our minds than when we abbreviate by means of *and* or *or* or *but* and the like.

10. By a like desire to avoid unnecessary repetition, we sometimes let a relative word or a dependent interrogative represent alone the whole clause which it would have introduced: thus,

He has been gone all day, no one knows where;  
I cannot come, and I will tell you why;  
One of you must give way, I do not care which;

That is, where he has gone; why I cannot come; and so on.

We have noticed under Adjectives (VII. 56) the frequent and familiar omission of the noun modified by an adjective, when it is readily to be supplied from the connection.

11. It is because comparison naturally involves parallelism or repetition of expression that the conjunctions of comparison, *than* and *as*, and especially *as*, have come to be followed very frequently by abbreviated and incomplete expression (as already pointed out, XI. 6. d): thus, for example (adding in brackets the words which may be supplied as understood),

He is taller than I (am tall);  
He is older than you think (that he is old);  
I would rather go than (I would soon [IX. 7]) stay;  
She is as good as he (is good);  
She was as gay as (she) ever (was gay);



He put it off as long as (putting it off was) possible;  
 Love thy neighbor as (thou lovest) thyself;  
 I regard it as (I regard a thing) possible;

Starting with such abbreviated constructions as the last two, as has come to be used as a kind of **APPOSITIVE CONNECTIVE** (II. 36 and 39 (1)) and even to take on the meaning of "in the light of," "in the character of"; so that, by analogy, we make such phrases as

He gained great fame as an orator; His fame as orator was great;

He did this as a precaution; He did his duty as chairman;  
 where it would be by no means easy to fill out the ellipsis in such a way as should give as its proper meaning.

Often, before a conditional clause, a whole clause of comparison, involving a repetition, is omitted after **as**: thus,

He looks as (he would look) if he were tired;

I would thank her as (I should thank her) if she had gone;  
 and the same kind of ellipsis is found with **as** and **than** before other kinds of clauses: thus,

You are just as gay as (you are gay) when you are in health;  
 Nor was his ear less pealed with noises than (one's ear is pealed little with noises) when Bellona storms . . . or less than (one's ear would be, etc.) if this frame of Heaven were falling.

Even the conditional clause itself may be abbreviated (see 9 above), making, for example,

He looks as if tired; Stooping as if to drink;  
 so, too,

You are as gay as when in health.

In conditional clauses this kind of abbreviation is so common, that as if has come to seem to us a compound conjunction or conjunction-phrase of comparison, and we are quite unconscious of the ellipsis really implied in it. As though is used in the same sense; while, if the ellipsis were filled out, though could hardly ever begin the conditional clause.

The interchange of though and if is probably due to the fact that in Old English the one is often used for the other even in ordinary constructions, as is sometimes the case in Modern English also: thus,

A well armed, if (or though) undisciplined army, poured forth, etc.;  
 If (or though) your exterior be never so beautiful, you must possess a beautiful interior also.

In older and in recent English, we find constructions equal in value to those with as if in which no if is used, the subjunctive form after as indicating the possibility: thus,

To throw away the dearest thing he used  
 As 't were a careless trifle.—SHAKESPEARE.

And half I felt as they were come  
 To tear me from a second home.—BYRON.



But even in Modern English poetry the omission of the *if* is unusual, owing to the loss of force on the part of the subjunctive form.

By an abbreviation kindred to *as if*, we change

You must so act as one acts in order to win approbation  
into

You must act so as to win approbation;  
and this has become, its origin being unthought of by us, one of the common constructions of the infinitive (XV. 15 b).

Once more, we frequently form sentences like these :

My friends, poor as they are, are above being bought ;

All unarmed as he may be, he will disdain to fly ;

where the adjectives *poor* and *unarmed* are in appositive construction, modifying the subjects of the independent clauses, *friends* and *he*—as if it were being as *poor* as they really are *poor*, and so on. Indeed, the modal adverb *as* still appears occasionally, as it often did in Old English, as the correlative of *this as* ; thus, for instance, we find in Carlyle,

For Nature, as green as she looks, rests everywhere on dread foundations.

But such a clause comes to appear to use equivalent to however *poor* they are, or though they are *poor* ; and then, by analogy with them, we form others which involve marked abbreviations : thus, for example,

Poor as they are, you cannot buy them ;

Valiantly as he may fight, they will beat him ;

where an absolute construction is implied : thus

they being as *poor* as they are ; he fighting as *valiantly*, etc. ;

or, again,

Much as I love you, I love honor more ;

where the appositive adjective is omitted : thus,

I, loving you as much as I love you, love honor more.

### III.—In the Split Construction

12. In written, more frequently than in spoken, language, there is found a form of sentence-abbreviation, called the *SPLIT CONSTRUCTION*, in which the part common to two or more phrases or clauses is expressed but once : thus, for example,

Too much is undertaken by, and expected from, the teacher ;

Some are, and must be, greater than the rest ;

He is older than, but not so tall as, his brother ;

It has become, and may be described as, an appositive ;

In written, more frequently than in spoken, language, etc. ;  
that is,

Too much is undertaken by the teacher and expected from  
the teacher ;

Some are greater than the rest are great,  
and some must be, etc.

But, of course, such abbreviations as the following are inadmissible :

**Man never is, but (is) always to be, blest;  
Many have (sat), and others must, sit here.**

*IV.—In Question and Answer.*

13. It is by the same simple and obvious kind of abbreviation—namely, by leaving out parts of the sentence which are so clearly understood from the connection that it would be mere wasteful repetition to express them—that in question and answer a word or two often stand for a whole sentence, short or long. Thus, if one asks

**Who broke in through the window, and did all this mischief in the room?**

it is quite enough to reply

**Jack,**

without repeating the whole story of what Jack did. Or, if one says

**You need not expect to see me at school to-morrow,**  
the return-question

**Why?**

and the answer

**Because I am going out of town,**

both imply repetitions of the first statement; but these need only be implied, and not actually made.

So also we very often repeat, in the form of an abbreviated question, a statement just made, in the way of asking for assurance as to the truth of the statement (XVI. 8): thus,

**So they are off already, are they?**

**You do not believe it, do you?**

**We may be sure, may we not, that he will betray us?**

The expressions (IX. 12 and 13)

**yea or yes**

**nay or no**

were originally adverbs, the one meaning “certainly” or “to be sure” (which we often use instead), the other meaning “not,” and each stands by abbreviation for a sentence in which it had the office of an adverb; but they are now complete answers by themselves, and no longer imply an ellipsis, because we have come to use them only in this way, and never combine them with other words to make complete sentences.

*V.—By substitution for repeated parts of speech.*

14. To save the burdensome repetition of nouns, we have the pronouns as brief and much used substitutes. In a similar way, the pronominal adverb **so** is a very frequent substitute

for a word (oftenest an adjective) or phrase or clause used as complement of a verb: thus, for example,

**He is an Englishman and so are you;**

**He is either married or going to be so**

**I thought that he could be trusted but I think so no longer;**

**If he is not already tired of waiting for us, this last delay will make him so.**

And **do** is an almost equally frequent substitute for a verb that needs to be repeated: thus,

**Sleep seldom visits sorrow; when it doth, it is a comforter;**

**Embrace me as I do thee; I love her better than he does.**

15. The infinitive, a participle of a repeated verb-phrase, is very often omitted, and the auxiliary left alone to represent the phrase: thus, for example,

**He has never seen it, but I have; I will join them if you will;  
Do you promise me? I do.**

In easy colloquial speech, even a repeated infinitive is represented by its sign to alone,

**He would not go, though I told him to;**

**You may stay if you want to;**

but this usage, though recent and much used, is not reputable (I. 61) and is not allowed in careful style.

## II.—Abbreviation when the Sense is Clear.

16. Not only, however, where the completion of the expression would involve an unnecessary and unavoidable repetition of something actually said close by, but also where the common usages of speech are such as to show plainly enough what is meant, we often take the liberty of omitting something.

17. a. We may have a subordinate member of the sentence omitted, as in

**He is fifteen (years old), and tall of his age;**

**This is the man (that) I saw;**

**It is a quarter after six (o'clock); Stop at the baker's (shop);**

**We visited St. Peter's (church);**

**Yours (your letter) of yesterday is received;**

**I shall leave on the twenty-third (day of the month);**

**Don't do more than you can (not) help.**

b. One of the more essential parts, the subject or the verb, may be omitted. Thus, the subject is omitted in certain current phrases in the first or third persons: as

**Thank you! Prithee (that is, I pray thee);**

**Would that he were here! Bless you! Confound the fellow!**

Also in diary style : as

**Went to church yesterday ; mean to go next Sunday.**

In the second person in the imperative, and in the second person singular in poetic and antique style the pronoun is omitted : as,

**Go; Hast heard? What say'st, my lady? Why dost stare so?**

In concessive clauses like

**Do what we will, work as hard as we may, we yet accomplish nothing;**  
for **Do we** (that is, **Let us do** [XVI. 16]), and so on.

In comparative phrases, an indefinite subject after **as** or **than** (compare 11. above): thus

**I will come as early as is possible;**

**The day was fairer than was usual at that season.**

With impersonal verbs the subject is sometimes omitted in poetic and antique style: thus, in Milton,

**Pure, and in mind prepared, if so befall,  
For death.**

Of this usage, which was common in older English, meseems, methinks, etc. (VII. 167), are apparently survivals; but the clauses that are connected in sense with these verbs are their logical subjects: thus, for example,

**Methought (that) I by the brook of Cherith stood.**

Again, the verb **be**, the copula, is sometimes omitted—oftenest before a predicate noun or adjective, and in a question: thus,

**Why all this noise here? You a soldier? Hence these tears;  
The higher the mountain, the greater the cold.**

A verb of motion is often omitted in commands, being made unnecessary by an adverbial adjunct: thus,

**Up and away! Off with you!**

**Back to thy punishment, false fugitive!**

and after the auxiliaries (here, of course, the asserting word still remains): thus,

**Farewell: I'll hence; I must after him to tell the news;  
And now let us down to breakfast.**

c. Examples of the omission of both subject and predicate verb, only a subordinate member remaining, are

(I wish you a) **Good morning, ladies;**

(I drink to) **Your health, sir;**

(I give you) **Many thanks for your kindness;**

**Waiter, (hand me) a clean plate; (It is) Agreed!**

(Give me) **Your hand upon it; Boatswain! (I am) Here, master;**

**My daughter is married to I know not who (he is);**

(Go we) **A little further, and we shall be at our journey's end;**

I know not what (I am) to do ;  
I will tell you when (you are) to begin.

And in the absolute construction of the pronoun, both it and the auxiliary being are left out in such sentences as

It is provoking, (you being) so tired as you are too.

18. What and now, followed by if and though (see 11 above), sometimes represent whole clauses : thus,

What though she be a slave ! How if the sky were to fall ?  
That is,

What matter is it, How would it be, or the like.

So not in such sentences as

Not that I was ever afraid of him ;

is the remnant of a clause, something like I would not say, or It is not the case. So too with not (XIV. 14. a) in

Did you see him ? Not that I recollect.

And the related expression

Not but that I might have gone if I had chosen,

we should in order to parse it, have to fill up in some such form as

I would not say anything but that I, etc.

Compare the somewhat similar abbreviation with but, noticed in VI. 65.

19. The so which is used so liberally, especially in mawkish and affected speech, in sentences like

I was so glad to see you ; It was so dreadful ;

makes the expression really incomplete, because it distinctly implies a comparison, of which the other member, a dependent clause introduced by as or that, is left unexpressed.

Well-established usage authorizes such expressions as

He says I have wronged him ; but so far from that, I have done him all the good in my power,  
when the meaning is but I am so far from that, that I have, etc. ; but the form without so, namely,

but, far from that, I have, etc.,

is both more logical and less cumbrous.

20. In Modern as well as in older English, an emphatic addition expressive of manner is made to a statement, sometimes by means of and that and rarely by means of and this : thus,

God shall help her, and that right early ;

Chaucer often hits the mark, and that by means the least expected ;

He rode several races for Sir Thomas, and this with such expertness, etc., where the full forms would be and God shall do that right early, and Chaucer does that, etc., and so on. Here also, by ellipsis, the pronouns



seem to represent part of a sentence which has just been used. Analogous with these constructions are the following :

I heard a humming, and that a strange one too ;

She had one foe, and that one foe the world ;

With short intervals of sleep, and those entirely filled with dreams.

## II.—Abbreviation for Impressiveness.

21. It was noticed above (4) that not economy alone but often impressiveness also, is sought to be attained by abbreviation. In the haste and heat of feeling, we throw aside our usual elaborate mode of calm expression, by assertion or statement, by putting together a subject and a predicate, and bring forth only that part of the sentence which most strongly affects our mind, or which we wish to have most strongly affect the mind of another.

Hence all emotional expression tends strongly to incompleteness ; the exclamatory sentence is apt to be a defective one. And any admixture of feeling adds to the readiness with which we resort to the various modes of abbreviation.

### I.—WORDS OR PHRASES.

22. Along with an interjection we often put a word or a phrase pointing out more distinctly the kind of emotion we feel, or the occasion of it : thus,

O horrible !	And oh, the difference to me !
Alas, my unhappy country !	Lo, the poor Indian !
Ah, the pity of it !	Fie, the lazy fellow !
Pish, nonsense !	Pshaw, how absurd !

But quite as often the occasion of the feeling is itself made an exclamation of, without any interjection added, the tone and gesture showing plainly enough what the feeling is. Thus the interjection may be omitted with any of the above examples.

Other forms less commonly used are,

Speak ? I couldn't have uttered a word ;

To think that he should have done so ! He to desert me ! (XV. 15. g)

Simpleton ! To dream that he could succeed without effort.

Occasionally, as if the interjection were an assertion instead of a mere sign of the feeling intended to be intimated, a preposition is used to combine it with the added explanation (see XII. 6) : thus

Fie on you !      Alas for Troy !

O for a lodge in some vast wilderness !

as if it were

I grieve for Troy ; I cry shame upon you ; I long for a lodge.



23. A number of our ordinary words are so commonly used in incomplete exclamatory expression that they have almost won the character of interjections. Such are the interrogative words

why, how, what,

with many others, of which the following are examples :

well, indeed, hark, behold, hail, help,  
silence, quick, away, out, back, to arms.

24. Occasionally, as the result of emotion, we find the essential elements of a sentence omitted in a question (compare 17. c above): thus,

Where to begin?                      How excuse myself?

But how to gain admission?

in each of which am I may be supplied.

## II.—DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

25. Dependent clauses are often used in an exclamatory way, with omission of the main clause on which they should depend—this being sometimes replaced by an interjection. Thus, for example,

O that he were with us! Had we but known of it in time!

What a pleasant day it has been!

How clear and balmy the air is!

If you had only seen her in her glory!

As if I could be guilty of such meanness!

Alas that he should have proved so false!

That a king should be so conveyed!

Oh! Mr. Simple, if you only knew how I loved that girl!

as if the construction were

I would that he were with us; It were well if you had only seen her in her glory; Observe how clear and balmy the air is;

and so on with the rest.

Such may be called EXCLAMATORY CLAUSES IN THE DEPENDENT FORM.

## III.—THE RELATIONS OF THE VOCATIVE, THE IMPERATIVE, AND THE INTERJECTION—INTERJECTIONAL PHRASES.

26. As has been already stated (XVI. 18 and 19), the imperative and optative modes of expression shade into each other, and are both nearly related to the exclamatory; and hence the question may often arise whether a given sentence or part of a sentence is best viewed as the one or the other—just as it may sometimes be questioned whether a sentence is more interrogative or exclamatory.

There is a certain relationship between the VOCATIVE or nominative of address in the noun, the IMPERATIVE or mode of direct command in the verb, and the INTERJECTION or word of direct intimation of feeling. The first and last stand equally outside the structure of the sentence, and the imperative usually rejects a subject; and the three variously accord in their practical uses.

27. For the sake of stimulating attention, or of giving force and impressiveness to what we say, or of softening what might seem too positive or blunt, or for other such purposes, we are apt in familiar colloquial style to throw in or *interject* into our sentences little phrases which form no real part of what we are saying, and stand in no grammatical connection with it, and which are also like interjections in that their chief purpose is to intimate our states of feeling.

Sometimes these are complete independent clauses: as,

you know;      you see;      I tell you;

I declare or fancy;

and sometimes they are incomplete, or mere fragments of sentences: as,

to be sure;      as it were;      so to speak;

by your leave;      if I may say so;

We may call them, then, INTERJECTIONAL PHRASES.

The whole catalogue of asseverations and oaths are of this character. Thus, for example,

by Jove

strictly means "I swear by Jupiter," and would be, if used seriously, the invocation of a divinity to attest the truth of what we are saying. And the same impulse to make our expression more forcible by putting into it a strong word or two, something that seems to imply feeling or passion, leads occasionally to the insertion of absurd bits of phrases, which it would be in vain to try to build up into sentences: thus, for example,

Who the mischief can have done this?

What in thunder are you here for?

It is not easy to avoid slang and inelegance with even the most moderate use of the most innocent interjectional phrases; and they shade rapidly off into what is coarse or profane.

### III.—Change in Character of Words and Phrases, produced by Abbreviation.

28. It is a common consequence of abbreviation that words change their grammatical character, and come to be of a different class from what they were before. Thus, for example, in

He kept himself quiet,

He got himself appointed,

Keep and get are transitive verbs, and quiet and appointed objective predicates. But now in familiar style we have shortened the expressions to

He kept quiet;

He got appointed;

and so have made the verbs intransitive, equivalents of continued and became—which last, like others of our verbs originally transitive or reflexive, has undergone a like change of construction.

Again, along (for on long) is originally an adverb-phrase, like on high and in vain, made into an adverb—like abroad and afar, which have always remained adverbs only. But, like above and among, and many other like adverbs, along came early to be used as a preposition also; and it was used in such phrases as along the side of anything. Then a further abbreviation and change made over the adverb-phrase along the side into a compound, as in

His ship lay along side of ours;

and this, finally, by omission of the following of, became what we have to call a preposition.

Because, in like manner, is for by cause—that is “by reason”—as beside is for by the side. We have not, indeed, turned because, like beside (for example, in beside himself), into a preposition, but always use a connective between it and the following noun, as in

We stayed in because of the storm;

just as we should say by reason of the storm. But between it and a following clause we have learned to leave out, by abbreviation, the words of connection, and so have turned it into a conjunction: thus,

We stayed in, because it was stormy;

where the complete expression would be

because of the fact that it was stormy.

So the conjunction for is originally the same word as fore; and the clause, for example,

for it was stormy,

is by abbreviation from before (that is, “in front or in view of”) the fact that it was stormy.

We have already noticed this mode of conversion of adverbs and prepositions, and even other parts of speech, into conjunctions (XI. 8). This process is still going on; for, within a short time, British speakers and authors have begun to use words like directly and immediately as conjunctions of time: saying, for example,

Directly (that is, as soon as) he got in, the train started.

But this usage, though recent, is neither national nor reputable, (I. 61).

Abbreviation produces phrases also which are used with the value of parts of speech and inflected like them: thus, in

He more than convinced me; he altered my conduct,

more-than-convinced is construed as a verb (VIII. 173. c) the regular form being he did more than convince me. Other examples are

He never-so-much-as-convinced me; He all-but-fainted.

29. These are only some (including the more usual and regular, or the ways in which English expression is abbreviated, with the result in part to give a new character to words, in part to make incomplete or elliptical sentences, which have to be filled up in order to be described and parsed.

It may often fairly be made a question whether we shall supply an ellipsis, declaring a certain word or certain words to be understood, or whether we shall take the sentence just as it stands, regarding the mode of expression as so usual that the mind, even on reflection, is unconscious the absence of anything that should be there. Thus it would be quite absurd to fill out a phrase in which for was used as conjunction to the

form (as explained above) out of which its use as conjunction grew ; but we may either treat as if as a conjunction-phrase or fill in the clause which the *as* really represents (see 11 above).

### OTHER CHANGES OF THE CHARACTER OF WORDS AND PHRASES : IDIOMS.

30. But our words also change sometimes, more or less, their grammatical character, simply by our coming to apprehend in a new way the expressions in which they are used. Thus, we have observed already the formation of the reciprocal pronoun-phrases *one another* and each other by our losing sight of the original difference of construction between the two pronouns composing them (VI. 68) ; also the great shift of meaning of the passive participle when used with the auxiliary *have* to make "perfect" tenses ; and other like cases.

So, further, the use of *both* and *either* or *neither* and *whether* as conjunctions correlative to a following *and* or *or* or *nor*, is by derivation from their value as pronouns, by a changed understanding of such sentences as these :

I saw *both*—(namely) John and William ;

*Either* (one of us)—*he* or *I*—must give way ;

He knows *whether* (*i.e.* which of the two)—*this* or *that*—is true.

So, also, *than* is only *then*, with a changed office ; This is better than that meant originally either This is better, then (*i.e.* next after it) that (is good) ; because the O.E. *thanne* or *thone* was originally demonstrative (see VI. 31) ; or This is better when that (is good), because the O.E. form came to be used as a conjunction with the force of *when* (compare VI. 43). Which explanation is the correct one depends upon the period at which the construction came into use ; but on this point we have no certain knowledge at present.

31. In part by abbreviation, in part by other changes of construction and of the value of words, every language has many modes of expression which are exceptional, unlike its ordinary combinations—phrases and sentences which if taken literally would not mean what we use them to mean, or which puzzle us when we attempt to analyze and explain them.

Such irregular expressions are called **IDIOMS** (from a Greek word meaning "peculiarity"). Their production is a part of that constant change of language (I. 15) which is often called the "growth." In order really to account for them, we need especially a knowledge of the history of our language. The present usages of any tongue we cannot fully understand without knowing something of its past usages, out of which these have grown ; and often a great deal of study and a comparison of other languages is required for settling difficult points. Some of the commonest of these have been taken up in the smaller print of this grammar.

### THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING IRREGULARITIES OF CONSTRUCTION : GENERAL CONCLUSION.

32. In chapter IV., we saw that the great causes of change of sound and form in English words, were, first our desire for ease of pronunciation, and, secondly, the influence of accent ; that these two causes act sometimes separately and very often together ; and that almost all other changes are due to analogy. From what we have seen in this chapter, as

well as elsewhere in this book, in regard to irregularities of the construction of the elements of the sentence, we conclude that, to a large extent, the same principles prevail ; that

*Abbreviation—the most fruitful cause of irregularity of construction—is produced by our desire for ease of expression, only those parts of the sentence being retained that are needed for clearness ; or by our emotions causing the emphatic enunciation of certain parts of sentences, the rest being omitted, as is the effect of accent upon the less important parts of a word ; that these two causes act sometimes separately and very often together ; and that most other irregularities of construction are due to the influence of analogy, the original value of an expression having been forgotten and the construction being valued on the analogy of some other construction which it has come to resemble.*

## EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

An incomplete sentence should be defined as such, and those words should be added which are necessary in order to enable us to analyze and parse it.

Any syntactical peculiarities of words or phrases in the following should also be taken up :

1. Favors to none, to all she smiles extends ; oft she rejects, but never once offends. 2. We have no slaves at home, then why abroad ? 3. Not simple conquest, triumph is his aim. 4. Ruin from man is most concealed when near. 5. Take the terms the lady made ere conscious of the advancing aid. 6. Why am I beaten ?—Dost thou not know ?—Nothing, sir, but that I am beaten.—Shall I tell you why ?—Ay, sir, and wherefore. 7. They loved him not as king, but as a party leader. 8. He looked as though the speed of thought were in his limbs. 9. Oh ! but it is a romantic spot. 10. Worse than that, he fell sick. 11. He did not wish to impugn her conduct, least of all in the servant's presence. 12. The Ultramontanes, whatever else they may be, would not thank us for describing them as Liberals. 13. The book, greatly to my disappointment, was not to be found. 14. Come what may, he will not go. 15. Come, you at least were twenty when you married ; that makes you forty. 16. How dost ? and how hast been these eighteen months. 17. Sure of that ?—Very sure. 18. And what if I call my servants and give thee in charge ? 19. Great God ! that such a father should be mine. 20. O for that warning voice, which he who saw the Apocalypse heard cry in Heaven aloud ! 21. Say where greatness lies. Where but among the heroes and the wise ? 22. What a cold-blooded rascal it is ! If the malignant eye of her father had but seen them at the moment ! 23. Up, Guards ! and at them ! 24. Strange to say, he was picked up alive. 25. Really, he did it more because he values the criticism than because he values the author. 26. No matter who went, he would go day after day. 27. There are more reasons than the mere interpretation of the treaty why the Canadian view should be insisted on. 28. It helped to throw him into a more than usually excited state. 29. It wouldn't do to leave out the furze bush ; and there's nothing prettier to my thinking, when it's yellow with flowers. 30. The blest to-day is as completely so as who began a thousand years ago. 31. I cannot lend you so much as a dollar. 32. He is more proud than sensible. 33. He is better off than you would imagine. 34. I had rather go to see him than have you come



here. 35. He would have gone but for his lameness. 36. Were he here, yes, standing beside me, I would beard him. 37. Don't imagine but that he has done his best. 38. One hardly knows whether to speak to him or not. 39. Bless me, Mr. Corks, anything happened?

1. And yet here, as long and as broad as they are, these glaciers are but six streams in six hundred. 2. Work as he may, he will fail. 3. Much as I should like to go, I will stay here. 4. My guide, as a matter of course, did not know the way. 5. As for me, I defer to Tully as to a learned man. 6. No one, so far as I am aware, said so. 7. They would contest every seat as an answer to the Loyalists. 8. Scott, as a poet, is inferior. 9. As regards this matter, I can but say that he has played fast and loose with what has as yet been done. 10. Will you be so good as to take the will for the deed? You know it is as good as done. 11. The reign of Science has been announced as begun. 12. Not that they thought me worth a ransom, but they were not safe when I was there. 13. He has gone I know not whither. 14. There is more than a possible danger. 15. They are, sad to say, all dead. 16. Another word and you die. 17. To my astonishment, he is more than satisfied. 18. He all but fainted. 19. Creation's heir, the world, the world is mine. 20. To think that he should have been so unfortunate! 21. Go, let thy less than woman's hand assume the distaff. 22. Have you seen him? Not that I recollect. 23. Distraction! if the earth could swallow me! 24. As sure as can be, here he comes. 25. So far from thinking well of him, I despise him. 26. I must help you some how or other. 27. I must speak to him, and that as soon as possible. 28. What with one thing and what with another, I am becoming more and more forgetful. 29. For all that you tried so hard, you have failed. 30. Surely, he is no other than my long expected friend. 31. Planned merely, 't is a common felony; accomplished, an immortal undertaking. 32. Talking of ghosts, I expect to see my grandmother's to-night. 33. Annual for me, the grape, the rose renew the juice nectarious and the balmy dew. 34. Only the exigency of the rhyme (if that) can excuse it. 35. A name among the most genial, not to say enthusiastic, of poets. 36. He is as methodical as man can be, says the chaplain, adding that his eye is as good as when he commenced his career nearly half a century ago, and that he works more hours than any other man in the prison. 37. They came, a few at a time. 38. More than \$500 was found in his room. 39. Sooner than allow yourself to be killed, take this sword and defend yourself. 40. As good dissemble that thou never meant'st, as first mean truth and then dissemble it. 41. The swan on still St. Mary's lake floats double, swan and shadow. 42. He did not know what course to take; he was so much put out. 43. Do what we would, they continued to blame us. 44. Heaven doth with us as we with torches do, not light them for themselves. 45. They met with little, or rather with no opposition at all. 46. You wont fight him, Bob? Egad, but I will, Jack. 47. It is not because he bids me that I go. 48. He promises to make an able statesman. 49. Have you taken cold? 50. Out upon such hypocrisy! 51. The news bids fair, doubtless, to pass current. 52. He married her some years ago—as true a love match as has ever taken place.

## GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. Give the other forms of the following, and comment thereon :

antic, attitude, avow, bleach, chivalry, chisel, close, couch, custom, coy, diamond, fashion, fealty, flour, gentle, muster, manure, pity, pattern, sample, sexton, sever, tamper, ticket, treason, wan, wait.

2. Account for the differences in the spelling of the latter parts of the words in each of the following groups :

believe, deceive; succeed, concede; actor, colour, player; insuperable, audible, indefinable; litigant, regent; dependent, dependant; advise, advice.

3. Account for the italicised letters in the following :

happier, beautiful, pitying, dryness, paid, piteous, serviceable, shoeing, dyeing, hopping, reveling (but unparalleled).



4. Discuss the constructions of the infinitives in the following :

1. He commanded him to go. 2. He commanded the bridge to be lowered. 3. Let us all go visit him. 4. Did the captains look to it? 5. We have not long to live. 6. That speechless page was seen to glide. 7. Twenty were ordered to be tied up. 8. I would I were to die with Salisbury. 9. Is he about to show us any play? 10. And it came to pass that, etc. 11. If I live to be a man, my father's death revenged shall be. 12. She prepared to get into the coach. 13. I could not but smile to hear her talk. 14. He is a man to thrive in the world. 15. Mine shall be the first voice to swell the battle cry of freedom. 16. Am I foolish enough to believe this tale? 17. You're a saucy fellow to talk thus to me. 18. I crossed the sea on purpose to see you. 19. To begin with, my mind was a blank. 20. To look at him, he seems half-witted.

5. Prove the existence of several successive races of conquerors in the British Isles by the traces of their language which remain at the present day in the names of persons and places.

6. Give the words of O. E. origin that most nearly answer to the following :

extend, expand, penetrate, pervade, denote, depart, spiritual, multitude, intrusion, invasion, incursion, elevation, attitude.

7. Discuss the forms in the following which differ from those of Modern English :

Bifor the feeste dai of pask Jhesus witynge that his our is comun, that he passe fro this world to the fadir, whanne he hadde loued hise that weren in the world, in to the ende he louede hem. And whanne the souper was maad, whanne the deuil hadde put than in to the herte, that Judas of Symount Scarioth schulde bitraye hym, he witynge that the fadir gaf alle thingis to hym in to hise hoondis, and that he wente out fro God, and goith to God, he risith fro the souper, and doith of hise clothis; and whanne he hadde takun a lynun cloth, he girde hym.—*Wycliffe's Translation of JOHN'S GOSPEL*, chap. XIII. vv. 1-4.

## GRAMMATICAL EXERCISES.

For oral and written practice in Grammatical Exercises other than those based on special subjects, the following course and order are recommended :

I. In the case of simple sentences :

(1) *Classification and description*; (2) *Supplying of ellipses with a definition of the causes thereof*; (3) *Analysis and parsing as recommended on pp. 49 and 315; only such etymological and syntactical difficulties to be taken up as are suitable for the class, too easy and too difficult points being both omitted. Even with junior classes, the reasons for the order of the words as detailed in chapter XVIII. may be taken up incidentally with much advantage. To prevent mechanical work and to secure interest, the character of the exercises should be frequently changed.*

II. In the case of other classes of sentences :

(1) *Classification and description*; (2) *Division into clauses, ellipses being supplied and explained*; (3) *Classification of clauses, with the definition of their co-ordination or subordination, and the separation and description of connecting elements and interjectional words and phrases*; (4) *Analysis as recommended on pp. 49, 50, and 315, and parsing as in the case of simple sentences.*

The questions and exercises at the end of each chapter are intended to suggest other classes of exercises, many of which may, however, be incorporated with the above.

## CHAPTER XVIII.

## ORDER OF WORDS.

## GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

1. Syntax, as we have seen (XIII. 2), treats of the combinations of words for use in the expression of our thoughts. So far we have considered how the elements in a sentence are related to one another; we have now to consider what principles determine their arrangement in the different kinds of sentences.

## 2. The assertive sentence

He restored me,

in which the parts are arranged in the usual prose order, may also be arranged thus :

Me he restored;      and      Me restored he.

If, however, for *he* and *me* in these three sentence we put the *king* and the *butler* respectively, we have

The king restored the butler;      The butler the king restored ;

The butler restored the king;

of which the meaning of the second is ambiguous, and the meaning of the third is different from that of the first. It is plain, too, that the reason why we cannot transpose *The king restored the butler*, without affecting its meaning, is that *king* and *butler*, being nouns, can distinguish their subjective and objective uses by position only, whereas *he* and *me* can do so by inflection also. So, too,

He only lent me ten dollars

differs in meaning from

Only he lent me ten dollars ;

He lent only me ten dollars ;

He lent me only ten dollars ;

and it is evidently absurd to put

the duke's poor officer      for      the poor duke's officer.

But not all sentences in English are like those given above. In others, some of the elements, from their nature, admit of transposition without a change of meaning : for example, in

He restored me unto mine office

the adverbial phrase may also begin the sentence or immediately precede the verb : thus,

Unto mine office he restored me ;

He unto mine office restored me.

So, too, with the transposed forms of *He restored me*.

We conclude, therefore, that

*Owing to the fewness of its inflections, English has in a very great measure to indicate the relations of words by their order.*

3. As we should expect, the order of the words in the sentence as well as their forms is determined mainly by the Principle of Ease (IV. 43): we select as far as possible that order which conveys our meaning with the greatest clearness and the least effort. As a matter of theory, therefore,

a. The adjective adjunct should precede its noun, as, under ordinary circumstances, the adjective does in English: thus, for example, black in  
a black sheep.

If the noun sheep were given first, the notion formed might be a wrong one: as white sheep are most common, it would probably be that of a white sheep. When, therefore, the adjective black is added: thus sheep black, we might have to remodel our notion. If, however, we begin with black, the utterance of the word arouses those vague associations with which the word is habitually connected, and, on the addition of the word sheep, the proper notion is clearly formed.

So, too, with the adverbial adjunct and the expression it modifies: thus, for example,

highly distinguished, very quickly, much to my surprise.

But, as the result of the uninflected condition of the language (see 2 above), and the greater closeness of the relation of the subject and the predicate, the object regularly follows a transitive verb: thus, for example,

We gained the victory.

Similarly under ordinary circumstances, an adverb follows the verb it modifies, and the object of this verb if it be transitive: thus,

She dances well; We gained the victory quickly.

b. By the same reasoning, the predicate should precede the subject, as it determines the aspect under which the subject is to be conceived: thus, for example,

Great is Diana of the Ephesians.

In English, however, the subject ordinarily precedes the predicate, as is shown by the examples already given. This order is probably due, in a measure at least, to the uninflected condition of the language. And, although, as the above example shows, we sometimes use with marked effect the order which is theoretically the better one, the tendency to uniformity has established the present idiom. Compare I. 41 and IV. 47.

c. As is the case in English, prepositions and conjunctions should go between the words they connect: they thus precede the expressions they bring into the relation: for example,

He and I came, but the captain of the ship remained at Plymouth.

We conclude, therefore, that

I. *As a matter of theory, that which affects the meaning of an expression should precede that expression.*

II. *The idiomatic order in the assertive sentence is subject, verb, complement; adjectival and adverbial adjuncts precede the expressions they modify; and prepositions and conjunctions are placed between the expressions they connect.*

## CAUSE OF VARIATION OF ORDER.

4. As is shown in part by some of the examples in 2 above, the order of the words, even in the assertive sentence, is not always that given in II. above. We have now to consider on what general principles such variations depend.

In the interrogative sentence

What charm had the little man ?

evidently what is put first to show clearly that a question is intended ; charm, though the object of the verb, must stand next it to make clear the relation of the words ; and had must follow to show clearly that the sentence is a direct question. So, too, in the subordinate clause of

A people whom I have not known shall serve me,

whom, although the object, is put first to show clearly that it is the connecting word, and that it relates to people, next which it thus stands.

Again, in

Talent I will marry, for talent I adore,

we express ourselves with greater force than if we had followed the usual order and put the object last. In both clauses we have given prominence to talent, which has thus become emphatic. So, too, with the transposed words in

Great is Diana of the Ephesians ; Far flashed the red artillery.

Once more, in such a pair of sentences as

Some divines of great fame were in prison. Among these was  
Richard Baxter ;

we see a double reason for the transposition of the latter : the reference of these becomes clearer, as it is put nearer its antecedent divines ; and the subject Richard Baxter, which is here important, gains in emphasis, as it follows the predicate.

Clearness and force, however, are not the only qualities we aim at in communicating with others. What does not sound well is disagreeable not only to those who speak but to those who listen. In such a sentence as

There were present the Town Council, the Board of Education,  
the clergymen of the different denominations—in a word, all  
of greatness that the place could produce ;

the subject is so much longer and weightier than the predicate that, if it stood in its usual place, it would make the sentence, so to speak, top-heavy, and thus produce an unpleasant effect. We, therefore, begin with the introductory adverb there and put the subject last, thus giving it more emphasis and making the sentence sound better, besides adding to its clearness (see 3. b. above).

So, too,

a matter too important to be overlooked

is, by us, considered more euphonious as well as clearer than

a too important to be overlooked matter.

But as our great object in communicating with others is to convey our meaning, first and mainly, with clearness, and, secondly, with force, we conclude that the desire for euphony is a less important factor than either of these, in determining the order of the words in the sentence.

We may, therefore, sum up thus :

*The chief causes of variation in the order of words are the need of clearness and the desire to give due emphasis to some important expression ; and the order of words is sometimes varied for the sake of euphony.*

#### I.—General Laws Resulting from these Causes of Variation.

5. We have now to consider the general laws of order that follow from the need of clearness and our desire for emphasis and euphony.

First, as to clearness :

As was shown by the interrogative sentence in 4 above, the interrogative phrase *what charm goes first*, so that the person addressed may at once see that a question is intended. What is first to affect his mind is placed first in the sentence.

So, too, the meaning we intend determines the relative positions of the adjectives in

four other children and other four children ;

and of the verb and its subject in

He may be blessed and May he be blessed !

Compare paragraph 3 above.

Again, if in

Under the circumstances, I must admit that you acted fairly,  
we put the adverbial phrase last : thus,

I must admit that you acted fairly under the circumstances ;  
we have an arrangement which is admissible but which materially alters the meaning. To convey the meaning intended by the first sentence, we must keep the adverbial phrase separate from the subordinate clause, with which it is not connected in sense, and place it near the predicate of the principal clause, with which it is connected in sense.

So, too, if in

I must not forget the two sons of this aspiring citizen, who  
came to church in a dashing vehicle,  
we intend who to refer to sons, it would be better to say

I must not forget this aspiring citizen's two sons who came  
to church in a dashing vehicle ;  
the relative being thus separated from citizen, to which it does not refer,  
and brought as close as possible to its antecedent sons.

Once more, in

The smooth monotony of the leading religious topics, as managed by the French orators, under the treatment of Jeremy Taylor, receives a new flexure at each turn of the sentence.  
we have the so-called "Squinting construction." The adverbial phrase under the treatment of Jeremy Taylor, although next receives, which it modifies, might be taken to refer to managed, which it does not modify. Arranged properly, it reads :

The smooth monotony of the leading religious topics, as managed by the French orators, receives, under the treatment of Jeremy Taylor, a new flexure at each turn of the sentence.

or

Under the treatment of Jeremy Taylor, the smooth monotony of, etc.



Hence the rules :

I. *That expression which is to be thought of first should go first in the sentence.*

II. *Those expressions that are closely connected in sense should be as near each other in the sentence as possible.*

III. *Those expressions that are not connected in sense should be separated in the sentence.*

The first of the above rules is known as the LAW OF PRIORITY, and the second as the LAW OF PROXIMITY: the third is a natural consequence of the second.

6. Secondly, as to emphasis :

If, for

I have no silver and gold,

we write

Silver and gold have I none,

we emphasize the object silver and gold and its adjunct none; the former, by placing it at the beginning of the sentence, and in what is, for it, an unusual position; and the latter, by separating it from the words it modifies and by placing it at the end of the sentence, both being, for it, unusual positions.

So, too, although the moon is made emphatic by inversion in

High rode the moon in cloudless blue

it is still more emphatic in

High rode in cloudless blue the moon,

being here at the end of the sentence and in what is, for it, a more unusual position.

Hence the rules :

IV. *The more unusual the position of an expression, the more emphasis it receives.*

V. *The most emphatic positions for an expression in a sentence are the beginning and the end, if one of these is not the expression's usual position.*

7. It follows from the preceding paragraph that expressions that are not intended to be emphatic should not be made so by being placed in unusual positions: Hence also a sentence should not close with a short or unemphatic expression: thus for instance,

The Emperor was so intent on the establishment of his absolute power in Hungary, that he exposed the empire doubly to desolation and ruin for the sake of it

would gain in clearness also, if for the sake of it were placed between that and he; and in such sentences as

It is a fundamental principle of logic, that the power of forming classes is unlimited, as long as there is any (even the smallest) distinction to form a difference upon;

the position of the preposition at the end would be objectionable in the higher and more dignified style of writing; but, being briefer and less formal than upon which to found a difference, this arrangement may sometimes be preferred in conversation, familiar letters, and the expression of emotion.



Similarly the so-called "Split Construction" (XVII. 12)—thus, for example,

I have often spoken to you upon matters kindred to, or, at any rate, not distinctly connected with, my subject for Easter, is objectionable, because by suspending the sense it throws emphasis upon unemphatic words—in this example upon *to* and *with*.

8. In the examples given in paragraph 6, the vigor of the expression is due to the fact that we have no idea of the proper meaning of the sentence till we come to the end. Other more marked examples are

Until you understand a writer's ignorance, presume yourself ignorant of his understanding ;

On a sudden, open fly

With impetuous recoil and jarring sound,  
Th' infernal doors ;

Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit  
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste  
Brought death into the world and all our woe,  
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man  
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,  
Sing, Heavenly Muse.

Such sentences are called PERIODIC; and, as we are by this arrangement kept in *suspense* as to the meaning, the principle is, by some, called the PRINCIPLE OF SUSPENSE.

9. The desire to give due emphasis to words leads us sometimes to set over against each other contrasted or opposed ideas. This also affects the order of the words, producing what is called the BALANCED sentence, in which both force and clearness are secured by similarity of form in successive clauses: thus, in

In the civil department, he did little but revise all that his brother had done; in the military, his attention was confined to insignificant details ;

the adverbial phrase, by beginning the first clause, secures clearness, while the adverbial phrase, by beginning the second, secures clearness and, by contrast, prominence also both for itself and for the first phrase.

The desire to emphasize words, phrases, or clauses, produces other effects upon the order in the sentence, but the discussion of these belongs to the domain of Rhetoric rather than to that of Grammar.

10. Thirdly, as to euphony :

Although, in such a sentence as

He called a meeting of the principal shareholders at his office secretly, that evening, at the suggestion of the secretary, to consider the matter ;

the meaning is clear enough and the order of the elements is the usual one, the collection of adverbial adjuncts at the end and the use in close succession, of the sibilant words, shareholders, secretly, suggestion, secretary, and consider, produce an unpleasant effect. Arranged thus, it is more harmonious:

At the suggestion of the secretary, he, that evening, called secretly a meeting of the principal shareholders at his office, to consider the matter.

Again in

That sensibility of principle, that chastity of honor which felt  
a stain like a wound, is gone;

the weight of the subject is disproportionate to that of the predicate,  
and the effect of the arrangement is an unpleasant one (see also 7 above).  
We must either increase the weight of the predicate, thus, for example,

is gone, to return no more forever ;

or, as Burke wrote the sentence, begin with the introductory it (which  
is, however, the grammatical subject) and put the real subject last :  
thus

It is gone, that sensibility of principle, etc.

Once more, in

For magnificence, for pathos, for vehement exhortation, for  
subtle disquisition, for every purpose of the poet, the orator,  
and the divine, his homely dialect was amply sufficient;

and in

As the vine which has long twined its graceful foliage about the  
oak, and been lifted up by it into sunshine, will, when the  
hardy plant is rifted by the thunderbolt, cling round it with  
its caressing tendrils and bind up its shattered boughs ; so is  
it beautifully ordained by Providence that woman, who is the  
mere dependant and ornament of man in his happier hours,  
should be his stay and solace when smitten with sudden calam-  
ity, winding herself into the rugged recesses of his nature,  
tenderly supporting the drooping head, and binding up the  
broken heart;

we have good examples of proper cadence ; the most important ideas,  
the longest members, and the most sonorous words, in each case come  
last, thus producing an agreeable climax of sound as well as of sense.

While, in the matter of euphony, much depends upon the taste of  
the writer and the requirements of the subject, and while these princi-  
ples are evidently less general in their operation than those of clearness  
and emphasis, and are likely to weigh chiefly with people of taste and  
education ; we may conclude generally that, unless forbidden by the  
laws of clearness and emphasis,

VI. *The successive use of unmelodious sounds should be avoided.*

VII. *Connected words, phrases, and clauses, should be arranged in the  
order of their weight.*

VIII. *Due proportion should be maintained among the different members  
of a sentence.*

## II.—Effects upon the Order of the Elements of the Sentence.

We will now consider connectedly how the order of the different elements in the  
sentence is affected by the principles stated in paragraphs 5-10 above.

### I.—The Essential Elements.

11. As a general rule, we have seen (3. above), the subject should precede the  
verb : thus, for example, in

God loveth the cheerful giver ;

Who said so ? Which of them was spoken to ?

**The Lord bless thee! Peace be unto thee!**

**He asks what he said; What a sad sight this was! (XVII. 25)**

But,

a. The verb itself may be the first word in the sentence: thus, for example, for clearness, in

**Comest thou from Athol? Are you ready? Is he gone?**

**May the Lord bless thee! Praise ye the Lord!**

and, for emphasis, in

**Yelled on the view the opening pack;**

the subject in each coming next the verb in accordance with the Law of Proximity. For conditional inversion, see XVI. 10.

b. The verb often precedes the subject when the sentence begins with an expression which is closely connected with the predicate (5. II.); thus, for example, in

**A mighty man was he; Sweet is the breath of vernal showers;**

**He was not present, nor (=and not) was I;**

**Then shook the hills, with thunder riven;**

**In my father's house are many mansions;**

**Not as the world giveth, give I unto thee;**

**Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have give I unto you;**

**"The Queen was present," said he, "accompanied by her courtiers";**

**What is he? Where has he gone? What a sad sight was this!**

**There is a reaper whose name is Death;**

**It is gone, that sensibility of principle, that chastity of honor which felt a stain like a wound;**

**I am even as unconcerned as was that honest Hibernian who, etc.**

but in many of the above examples, there would be no loss of clearness or euphony, if the usual order were followed: there would, however, be a change of emphasis: thus,

**A mighty man he was; Then the hills shook, riven with thunder;**

and so on.

12. From the examples given in the preceding paragraph, we conclude that, in direct narration, the order usual in the assertive sentence is inverted in the interrogative and the exclamatory sentence, unless in the former the subject is an interrogative pronoun, and then the sense is clear without inversion; and in the imperative and the optative sentence, unless in the latter the form of the verb shows the meaning clearly.

## *II.—Complements of the Subject and the Predicate.*

### **1.—INCOMPLETE PREDICATES.**

13. The subjective complement usually follows the verb, the Law of Proximity bringing the verb next the subject. Examples are

**Man became a living soul; Hope springs eternal in the human breast;**

**He is of great assistance to me; This is what he needs.**

But this order is sometimes inverted: thus, for emphasis, in

**A mighty man was he; Sweet was the breath of morn;**

for clearness and emphasis in the latter of the following connected sentences:

**He said that he had gone. Such was the fact;**

and, for clearness, emphasis, and euphony, in

**Of great importance to our project is a man who will prove himself able both to initiate, and to carry out his undertakings.**

See XVII. 11, for sentences containing such apparent inversions as

**Poor as they are, you cannot buy them ;**

14. As a general rule (2 above), the object follows the verb upon which it depends. But this order is sometimes inverted : thus, for example, for clearness, in

**This is the letter that he wrote ; What does the fellow want ?**

for emphasis, in

**Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have give I unto thee ;**

**Venture down into the cabin I dare not ;**

**“The Queen was present,” said he, “accompanied by her courtiers” ;**

and for clearness and emphasis in the latter of the following connected sentences ;

**He insisted on my asking pardon. This proposal I would not accept.**

The inversion of the object is more frequently met with in poetry than in prose, as, in prose, the need of clearness generally forbids this order and the meaning should be evident at once. Such arrangements as the following, for instance, are not admissible in ordinary prose :

**The birds their notes renew ; And all the air a solemn stillness holds.**

When, however, the governing word is an imperative ; or when either the subject or the object or both are inflected pronouns or nouns of different numbers ; the object is sometimes inverted in prose as well as in poetry, for emphasis or euphony, because in such cases the forms of the words prevent ambiguity : thus, for example,

**Him serve with mirth, his praise forthtell ;**

**Me he restored unto mine office, and him he hanged ;**

**Some pious drops the closing eye requires.**

15. When a verb is followed by two objects, the indirect object precedes, being generally the more important (5. 1 ; and compare XII. 42) ; thus,

**He gave me long odds ; He paid the man wages ;**

but, when this order is inverted for clearness, emphasis, or euphony, a preposition must be inserted for clearness before the indirect object, otherwise we should follow the usual idiom and value the first object as indirect : thus, for example,

**He gave long odds to me ; He paid wages to the man ;**

**He gave long odds to me who had been, and who was still willing  
to be, his friend and supporter.**

16. Clearness (5. 1) requires the objective predicate complement to follow the direct object : thus,

**He made the stick straight ; It held him a captive.**

But, in the case of factitive verbs, owing to the closeness of connection in meaning between the verb and the objective predicate, the latter sometimes precedes for emphasis : thus, for example,

**He made straight the stick ;**

or for clearness, emphasis, and euphony ; thus, for example,

**He made plain the meaning which he wished to convey and about  
the real nature of which there had been some speculation.**

In poetry, again, the desire for emphasis sometimes produces such inversions as

**But light I held the prophecy ; I might behold address the king.**

## 2.—ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

17. As we have seen (3. a. above), the adjectival adjunct, when possible, precedes its noun : thus, for example, in the case of the attributive word,

**man's estate ; his place ; two men ; this man ; loving father.**

But inversion takes place in the appositive construction :

a. When the modified word is a pronoun : thus,

**we two ; you four ;—and less frequently—they three ; these six.**

As we do not often use this arrangement with the demonstrative of the third person (which is comparatively unemphatic) preferring, by analogy, the partitive construction : thus, **three of them, four of them**—which construction is also to be used with the other pronouns when the modifier is emphatic ; thus **two of us, four of you**, etc.—it would seem that the appositive order is here due to the emphatic nature of the pronoun.

b. When we wish to indicate the looser connection expressed by the appositive order (XIII. 57), or to emphasize the word modified : thus,

**Cicero, the orator ; George the Fourth ; the Lord most High ;  
a price so heavy ; a wind sharp and keen ; James having returned.**

In such expressions, the adjunct may precede, in some cases becoming attributive, or, in others, remaining appositive and thus acquiring emphasis : thus,

**the fourth George ; the most High God ; the orator Cicero.  
Having returned, James attended to the matter.**

c. When a desire for euphony, or, owing to the nature of the expression, the need of clearness, prevents the usual order : thus,

**a father loving his children ; the demons found in middle air.**

d. When, in poetry, variety (a form of euphony) or emphasis is desired : thus,

**sea-cave dim ; the primrose pale and violet blue ;**

**fresh woods and pastures new ; free speech and fearless.**

e. In a few expressions of French origin (in French, the adjective usually follows the noun) thus,

**Prince Regent ; heir apparent ; Governor General ; court-martial.**

18. Both euphony and clearness usually require that the adjective phrase and the adjective clause shall follow the expression they modify. But this order is inverted sometimes in the case of the phrase : thus, for example, for emphasis, in

**of all thy sons the weal or woe ; Of human ills the last extreme beware ;**  
for clearness, in

**borne on the air of which I am the prince ;**

or, for both emphasis and clearness, in the latter of the following :

**He had two sons. Of these one had died and the other, etc. :**

and occasionally in the case of the clause : thus, for example, for emphasis, in

**Who murders time, he crushes in the birth a power ethereal ;**

but here the subordinate clause is really substantive in value.

19. As an adjective preceding a noun modified by another adjective modifies the complex notion thus presented, clearness requires, that, if two or more adjectives precede a noun, that most closely connected with it in sense should be placed next it, and so on (5, I and II above) : thus, for example, we say,

**the wise man ; a wide blue mantle ; two large men ;**

and not

**wise the man ; a blue wide mantle ; large two men.**



In such arrangements as

**What a piece ! How large a letter !**

and so on (VII. 41), we have an inversion, for clearness (5. 1), to begin with the exclamatory word. Again, in

**such a Roman ; too excellent a guest ;**

the inversion is probably due to a desire for emphasis. For **many a** and analogous arrangements, see VII. 38 and 39.

So, too,

**the first five men ; the last two chapters ; four other children ;**

differ in meaning from

**the five first men ; the two last chapters ; other four children ;**

but, as in most such expressions the difference of meaning is not marked, these arrangements are often used interchangeably, with a preference, on the part of good writers and speakers, for the arrangement first above given.

20. When, again, there are many adjuncts of different kinds and lengths, euphony and clearness require either some to precede and others to follow : thus, for example,

**Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, and  
early united to the object of her choice, the amiable princess,  
happy in herself, and joyful in her prospects, little anticipated  
the fate that was soon to overtake her ;**

or the repetition of the noun, or use of its equivalent, with the added adjunct ; thus, for example,

**The spirit of Francis Bacon was abroad ; a spirit (or one)  
admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety.**

### 3.—ADVERB COMPLEMENTS.

21. As we have seen above (3. II.), the adverbial adjunct regularly precedes the adjective or the adverb which it modifies : thus, in the case of the adverb,

**an almost fatal blow ; very quickly ; not a drum was heard ;  
much to my surprise ; only because you spoke.**

Occasionally, however, inversion takes place for emphasis : thus,

**finding in the lowest depths a deeper still :**

and in Modern (not always in older) English the adverb **enough**, being unemphatic, follows the expression it modifies : thus,

**good enough ; quickly enough.**

The prepositional phrase, when expressive of degree, prefers to follow the general rule, unless this order is inverted for emphasis or euphony : thus,

**in the highest degree fatal ; to a large extent misunderstood :**

in other cases, the preposition asserts its force (3. II. above) : thus, .

**remarkable for his learning ; known to everyone.**

Euphony and clearness generally require the adverbial clause to follow the adjective or the adverb : thus,

**known when he speaks ; known as soon as he speaks.**

22. On account of the greater closeness of the verb and its subject, the adverbial adjunct follows its verb when intransitive : thus,

**He went home—to his home—to see his father—when I returned ;**

and on account of the greater closeness of the object, it follows the latter when the verb is transitive : thus,

**I sent him often—home—to his home ; etc.**



But in both cases inversion takes place for emphasis, clearness, or euphony: thus,

**Often—Home—To his home, etc., he went ;  
He often went ; To Him thy woes, thy wishes bring ;  
The Queen was carried to Sterling. There she was safe ;  
When I returned, he went home.**

When the predicate verb is phrasal, the adverb follows the asserting word, if closely connected therewith: thus, in Modern English, always in the case of **not**,

**He has not gone ; He has not been struck ;**  
the present and the past tense becoming phrasal when the negative is added: thus,  
**I go and I went, become I do not go and I did not go.**

In older English the negative often follows the simple tense.

Other similar examples are,

**I shall certainly go ; I will never go ; I will in no event leave ;**  
but it is only in the case of **not** that this order is established.

From their nature the participle and the infinitive follow the general rule: thus,

**Not having seen him, I, etc. ; Not to have gone proves, etc.**

Further; for emphasis, clearness, or euphony, an adverbial adjunct may, in a phrasal verb-form precede the participle or the infinitive element if there be one, and the last if there be more than one: thus, for example,

**He has carefully studied the case ; He has been long harassed in the work ;  
He will without reserve impart secrets of the greatest moment ;  
I will, as soon as I can, attend to the matter thus presented to me ;  
The merit of having earnestly endeavored to present the matter clearly ;  
To have quickly decided is half the battle.**

Sometimes, however, we have such arrangements as

**He has long been my friend ; I shall soon have finished.**

In accordance with the tendency indicated by the examples given above, an adverbial adjunct is often placed between the root-infinitive and its sign: thus,

**to immediately return ; to quickly perform one's duties ;**

but this usage, though becoming more and more general, has not yet been sanctioned by reputable writers. We should prefer

**immediately to return, or, to return immediately, etc.,**

on the ground that **to**, being here meaningless, is a mere sign and therefore more closely connected with the significant part of the phrase than are the words that precede the adverbs in the examples given above.

23. Where a verb has several adjuncts with meanings belonging to different classes, grammarians, generally speaking, hold that time comes first, place next, and manner last; but to this rule there are many exceptions: considerations of clearness, emphasis, or euphony are the main determinants. Examples are,

**Once again we sleep soundly ; The moon shone very brightly then ;  
We sometimes find it when we least expect it ;**

and the following sentence from Burke shows that much skill is often needed in the arrangement of the adverbial adjuncts:

**On the morning of the 6th of October, 1789, the King and Queen of  
France, after a day of confusion, alarm, dismay, and slaughter,  
lay down under the pledged security of the public faith, to in-  
dulge nature in a few hours of respite.**

24. Certain words, as **only**, **at least**, are very likely to cause ambiguity unless properly placed: thus, for example, in accordance with the general rule, **only** precedes the word it modifies, in

**He only lent me a dollar ; He lent me only a dollar.**

Sometimes, however, it follows the expression it modifies: thus, for example, in

**He lent me a dollar only ;**

in which case emphasis is gained ; and in

**The heavens are open to the faithful at intervals only ;**

or

**The heavens are open at intervals to the faithful only ;**

by which arrangements we avoid the "squinting construction" produced in

**The heavens are open at intervals only to the faithful.**

In arrangements like the last, ambiguity might be avoided by proper punctuation ; but, as a general rule, clearness should be, as far as possible, independent of punctuation.

### III.—Connecting Elements.

25. Regularly, the preposition is placed between the words it relates (3. II.) ; but inversion takes place for clearness or emphasis, especially in colloquial speech and in the easy style of writing : thus,

**Pedantry, he is well known to be free from ;**

**Whom are you speaking to ? The man from whom I received it ;**

**From burning suns where living deaths descend.**

This inversion is most used when the object of a preposition is a relative or an interrogative, and the preposition thus becomes ENCLITIC, that is, it is unemphatic, and, as it were, *leans upon* the preceding word, becoming an unattached suffix. Further, as this inversion makes style less stiff and formal, it may be regarded as euphonic also.

26. Like the preposition, the conjunction is regularly placed between the expressions it connects ; but here also inversion takes place :

Frequently when a subordinating conjunction introduces a substantive or an adverbial clause : thus,

**That he is lost my fears too truly tell ; When you return I will leave ;**

**Young though he was, he gained the prize ;**

but, as clearness always requires the insertion of the noun antecedent of an adjective clause, the Law of Proximity forbids the inversion of this kind of clause.

In the case of certain coordinating conjunctions, when they are not emphatic. Examples are

**however, nevertheless, notwithstanding, therefore, moreover ;**

thus,

**My friend, however, refused to answer him ;**

Clearness also requires that correlative conjunctions should precede expressions having the same grammatical relations in the sentence : thus,

**He is accused not only (both, either, etc.) of theft but also (and, or, etc.) of murder ;**

and not,

**He is not only accused of theft but also of murder ;**

which latter would lead us to expect some such ending as **but also convicted.**

### IV.—Interjectional Words and Phrases.

27. From their nature, interjectional words and phrases may have various positions in the sentence, depending upon the nature of the speaker's emotion : thus, for example,

**The king, alas ! has fallen ; Alas ! the king has fallen ;**

**To your tents, O Israel ; James, come here.**

When the interjectional word is not wholly separate from the construction of a sentence (XII. 6), the usual rules of order are followed : thus,

**O for a calm, a thankful heart ! O that it were so !**

### EXERCISES.

One of the most useful exercises is "Parsing for Order ;" that is, explaining the effect of the order of the words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence. For this purpose the sentences in any of the preceding exercises may be used, as well as the text of the Grammar and Literature lessons.

## CHAPTER XIX.

## PHONETICS.

1. Thus far words have been considered mainly as elements of the sentence. It is true that in Chapter IV. the analysis of words has been dealt with, but only of such words as are really the representatives of older phrases. After analyzing these phrases into their elements—as, for instance, **bearer** into **bear** and **er**, or **refer** into **re** and **fer**—we have had to stop, because it is impossible to break up any of these syllables into parts each of which shall have a meaning. If, however, we now analyze the sound of the syllable **bear**, we see that it consists of three parts, **b-eh-r**; so, too, **fer** consists of three, **f-e-r**; though none of these simple sounds conveys any meaning. That part of language-study which deals with the nature and varieties of sounds is called **PHONETICS**; and, although the subject forms a branch of study distinct from Grammar, we will now take up the elements of English Phonetics, on account of the value of a knowledge thereof to the student of English Grammar.

## CLASSES OF SOUNDS.

2. As a preliminary, we should notice that the number of sounds in a spoken word is often quite different from the number of letters used in writing that word: thus, for example, **eight**, as spoken, has only two sounds, **e-t** (the **e** being pronounced as in our **eh**), though five letters are used in writing it; while **eight** contains one sound not indicated by its spelling, that is, a **t** before the **th**, the last two letters representing a simple sound. **Awe**, again, has but one sound, that of a **a** in **all**.

3. In order to understand the nature of these and other simple sounds, let us mark carefully what we do in pronouncing a few words. Take, for example, the words

**pea, tea, key, fee, see;**

and mark, first, how we make the first sound of each. In sounding **pea**, we begin by closing the lips, thus completely stopping the breath; the sound which we write **p** being produced by the sudden breaking out of the breath. In sounding **tea**, we also stop the breath, but this time by putting the tip of the tongue against the hard part of the palate; and, in sounding **key**, we again stop the breath, but by putting the back part of the tongue against the soft part of the palate. On the other hand, in sounding **fee**, we do not close the lips, but bring the lower lip to the edge of the upper teeth, leaving room enough for the breath to pass between, the sound being a rustle caused by the breath rubbing against the lips and teeth as it passes through the narrow slit. Again, in sounding **see**, the tip of the tongue does not quite touch the palate, and the hiss is caused by the breath rubbing against the tongue as it passes. Hence we see that some sounds are made by *stopping* the breath before allowing it to burst forth, and that other sounds are made by causing the breath to *rub* through narrow slits left between the tongue and the palate or the other organs of speech. The former of these may very appropriately be called **STOPS**, and the latter, **FRICATIVES**. In English grammars, however, the Fricatives are generally called **SPIRANTS**, or *breathing* sounds.

4. But, in uttering the last sounds of the examples in the preceding paragraph, we neither stop the breath nor make it pass through so narrow a chink as to cause any rustling or rubbing against the organs of speech. This is true also of such sounds as **ah, eh, oh**, the last sound of **coo**, the first sounds of **at, ask, ox, or, us, ell, it**, and the middle sound of **put**. How, then, are these sounds made? A little observation will show that these are musical sounds, those before described being mere noises. Now, physiologists tell us that just as the breath leaves the windpipe, it passes between two thin membranes, called the “vocal chords,” which, when stretched and brought near each other, are set vibrating, and, like the strings of a harp or a violin, give rise to the various musical sounds. Further, it has been found that the differences among these sounds depend partly on the pitch of the sound, but mainly on the shape of the mouth at the time of uttering them. Thus, if the lips are rounded a little, we get the last sound of **rue**; if a little more, the sound of **oh**; if the front part of the tongue is raised, that of **ee**. Such sounds are called **VOWELS**.

5. And, as it has been found that all the sounds we use in speaking are formed in one or another of the three ways explained in paragraphs 3 and 4 above, we classify as follows the sounds of our language:

1. **STOPS**, or sounds produced by stopping the breath by the lips or tongue and then allowing it to escape.
2. **SPIRANTS** (or, better, **FRICATIVES**), or sounds produced by forcing the breath to pass through a narrow opening between the tongue, teeth, lips, etc.
3. **VOWELS**, or musical sounds produced by the breath vibrating the vocal chords, unobstructed in its passage but modified by the shape of the mouth.

The stops and the spirants are collectively called **CONSONANTS** from the notion that they can be *sounded only by the aid of a vowel*. That this is a mistake is, however, plain from the pronunciation of **prism** (*prizm*, not *prizum*), **rhythm** (*ridhm*, not *rithum*). The two classes are distinguished from each other by this, that we can prolong the sound of the spirants as much as we please, but not that of the stops: thus, *hiss-s-s-s*, but not *hit-t-t-t*; *ruff-f-f-f*, but not *up-p-p-p*—because the sound of a stop is produced just at the moment the breath breaks forth.

## THE SOUNDS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: THE ALPHABET.

### 6. Let us now make a list of all the sounds in the language.

First, as to the stops: We find that, by closing the lips, we sound **p**, and by raising the tip and the back part of the tongue, we sound, respectively, **t** and **k**. But we find that with just the same positions of the lips and tongue, we utter the sounds of **b**, **d**, and **g** (as in *gay*). The difference is that the breath is held in while making these latter sounds, which causes the vocal chords to vibrate a little, though not enough to produce a vowel sound. The latter are, therefore, said to be **VOICED** (or **FLAT**), the former being **VOICELESS** or **whispered** (or **SHARP**). Further, as the sounds **k** and **g** (and **j**) are formed near the throat, they are called **GUTTURALS**; similarly, **t** and **d** are called **LINGUALS**, or tongue-sounds—sometimes **DENTALS**, or tooth-sounds; and **p** and **b**, **LABIALS**, or lip-sounds. Again, if we close the lips but allow some breath to enter the nose, we get the sound of **m**; or if we put the tongue in the **t** or **k** position, similarly opening the passage into the nose, we get the sounds represented by **n** and **ng** respectively. These are, accordingly, called **NASALS**, or nose-sounds.

7. Secondly, as to the spirants: Here, again, we find some sounds voiceless, or whispered; and others voiced: thus, by means of the lips and teeth, we sound the voiced **v** and the voiceless **f**, which may, therefore, be called **LABIO-DENTALS**. By the lips we sound the **LABIALS**, the voiced **w** and the voiceless **wh**; by the tongue brought near the teeth, we get the dental **th**, either voiced (*dh*) as in *they*, or voiceless (*th*) as in *thin*; with the tip of the tongue near but not touching the palate, we get the voiced **z** and the voiceless **s**, which are known as **LINGUALS**; with the tip a little farther back, the voiced sound of **s** (*zh*) in *pleasure*, and the voiceless sound as in *sure* (usually written *sh*). To these we must add the sounds of **l** and **r**, formed by *trilling* or shaking the edges and the tip of the tongue and, therefore, called **TRILLS**; the sound of **y**, which seems to arise from the rapid pronunciation of **ee** before another vowel; and also the sound of **h**, which is only the *breath* let forth without any modification, and is, therefore, called the **ASPIRATION**. The trills **r** and **l** with **y**, from their resemblance to vowels, are also called **SEMI-VOWELS**. When not before a vowel, **r** is, by Southern Englishmen, sounded like a vowel, or untrilled.

8. We have seen that vowels are sounds produced by the breath made musical by the vibration of the vocal chords, and moulded by the varying shape of the mouth. How these various shapes are produced will appear if we observe what is done in pronouncing successively the vowel sounds of

see, say, and sell, and pooh, go, and all.

In the former case the *front*, and in the latter the *back*, of the tongue have successively a *high*, a *medium*, and a *low* position in the mouth; hence the distinction of **FRONT** and **BACK**, and of **HIGH**, **MID**, and **LOW**, vowels. Further, as the second series require *rounding* of the lips, they may be called **ROUND VOWELS**. The **u** of *up* is a mid-back vowel without rounding. In like manner we may classify the vowel sounds of **ah**, **ask**, **at**, and **ill**, and the round vowels of **on** and **good**. Some of the latter series have been called the short forms of the long vowels of **see**, **say**, etc.; but that this is not correct is plain from the fact that no dwelling on the vowel sounds will convert *ill* into *eel*, or *on* into *awn*. The difference really arises from the latter series being pronounced with a *wider* position of the vocal organs, so that they may be called **WIDE VOWELS**, the former series being called **NARROW**. Besides the preceding vowel sounds, Mr. Melville Bell, whose classification we have followed, enumerates those followed by **r** (that is **r** untrilled), as in **air**, **err**, **are**, and **or**; and also those found in the endings **or**, **ary**, **ure**, **er**, etc.; but these distinctions are probably not all important.



9. We have yet a class of vowel sounds to note, each of which seems to possess the qualities of more than one vowel sound: thus, for example, the sound of *eye* seems to unite the sound of *a* in *ask* and of *i* in *pit*; *oi*, that of *o* in *odd* and of the same *i*. In reality, however, the second sound is not a vowel, but a sound intermediate between *i* and *y*, while in *now* we have one between *oo* and *w*. To this class some authorities add the sound of *you*; but, to be consistent, they should include also the sounds of *ya*, *ye*, and so on.

These sounds have been called GLIDES on the supposition that they are formed when the mouth is changing from one vowel position to another. They are also more commonly called LIPHTHONGS, as if produced by "two vowel efforts." Only the initial element, however, is a vowel; the second is, as we have seen, a transitional sound or glide; and the two in combination form but a single syllable. According to some authorities the sound of *e* in *they* and of *a* in *fame* is a diphthong also, the last sound being that which ends *eye*.

We may also notice that the sound of *ch* in *church* and of *j*, which some regard as simple, are really glides from the *t* and *d* to the *sh* and *zh* positions, as may be seen by prolonging the sounds, the results being *t-sh-sh-sh-urch*; *d-zh-zh-zh-oke*.

10. We now summarize our results in the following table which presents a view of the sounds of the English language:

I. CONSONANTS.				SPIRANTS.		
	STOPS.					
	VOICELESS.	VOICED.	NASAL.	VOICELESS.	VOICED.	TRILLS.
Gutturals .....	k	g	ng			
Palatals .....				sh	y, zh	
Linguals .....	t	d	n	s	z	l, r
Dentals .....				th	dh	before a vowel.
Labio-dentals...				f	v	
Labials .....	p	b	m	wh	w	

II. VOWELS.			
	NARROW.		WIDE.
	BACK.	FRONT.	BACK. FRONT.
High .....		ee-l	i-l
Mid .....	u-p	a-le	a-sk
Low .....		e-l	a-h
High .....	p-oo-l		g-oo-d
Mid .....	g-o		} ROUND.
Low .....	a-l		O-n

Diphthongs, or Glides, as in *eye*, *aye*, *boy*, *owl*; also vowels followed by *r*.

11. From the preceding table we see that our language has about forty elementary sounds. As our alphabet has really only twenty-three characters (*c*, *q*, and *x* being redundant), many sounds have no special representatives. This is especially true of vowels, which have only five letters, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, to represent them.

These deficiencies of our alphabet are made up by using:

a. DIGRAPHS, or combinations of two letters, to represent one sound: thus, for example,

*th*, *sh*, *wh*, *ee*, *ai* (in *air*), *ao* (in *gaol*), and the diphthongs *ou*, *ei*, and so on.

But such combinations are not always consistently used, for the same sound may be represented by different combinations, and different sounds may be represented by the same combinations.

b. The same letter to represent more than one sound: thus, for example,

*a* represents different sounds in *father*, *all*, *ale*, *at*, *ask*, *what*, *many*;

*c* " " " " *cat*, *cease*, *tenacious*;  
and so on.

c. What are called ORTHOGRAPHICAL EXPEDIENTS, as, for example, the *e* mute in *fame*, *meantime*; the doubling of consonants—compare *striping* and *stripping*.

#### THE DEFECTIVENESS AND UNSTEADINESS OF OUR ALPHABET.

12. The causes of the wide gap between the sounds of our language and the letters of our alphabet are to be sought in the changes which these sounds have undergone.

Old English used mainly the Latin alphabet but made some additions to it, viz: æ, which seems to have represented the sound of **a** in **hat**; while the two sounds now represented by **th**, and the sound of **w** were represented by three characters, now obsolete. Besides these it used combinations of vowels to represent diphthongs, as *ea* and *eo*, the sounds of which are now matters of dispute. From these additions and from the fact that the spelling of the same word varied in different parts of the country, we may safely infer that the spelling answered tolerably well to the pronunciation. The sounds of the vowels were almost certainly: *a*, as in **father**; *e*, as in **ere**; *i*, as in **mien**; *o*, as in **oh**; and *u*, as in **oo**: and **c** was pronounced always like **k**, never like **s**.

In the period following the Norman Conquest, the absence of any standard literary dialect and the various forms that the same word had in different authors, show that people still wrote as they spoke. This state of matters lasted till the introduction of printing, an event which led to a gradual divergence of spelling and pronunciation, as printers came to have a fixed way of spelling a word, no matter how it might be spelled in the copy; and as the diffusion of printed books led to the spelling used in them being generally adopted. Hence, while the sounds of the language have changed very much since the fifteenth century, the changes in spelling have lagged far behind, so that now the spelling of a word is no guide to its pronunciation. The periods during which changes in sound were most rapid are from the Norman Conquest to the writing of the *Canterbury Tales*, and, in a less degree, the periods of the Wars of the Roses and of the Civil War, times of great change and unsettlement of men's minds and of much mingling of men from different parts of the country with the consequent obliteration of local peculiarities. During the time of the Wars of the Roses, there was, moreover, a general neglect of literature, a condition of matters which always tends to changes in a language.

It has been already seen that (I. 31 and 35) that the destruction of Old English Literature by the Norman Conquest tended to unsettle the language, particularly by obliterating those grammatical distinctions which depend on differences of vowel sounds in final syllables, all of these sinking to *e* which, after Chaucer's time, became mute. Other phonetic changes took place as well (I. 38): thus, for example, the O. E. *ea*, *eo*, and *æ* disappeared; *e* (or *h*) had often become **ch**, especially in the South; for example, O. E. *cyrice* became **church**, the Northern *kirk*; the combinations *hr*, *hl* dropped the *h*, and *hw* became **wh**; *sc* was also weakened to **sh**, but in the North it held its ground. As these changes were most rapid in the South, they may have been hastened by the fact that the Normans left off speaking French and naturally carried some of their peculiarities of pronunciation into their speaking of English. Moreover, they continued to use many French words, and so introduced into our language such sounds as **j**, and the Fr. *u*, which has in modern times been altered to *yu*. The sound of *zh* was probably introduced later when French had weakened its *j* to that sound. It is, however, incorrect to suppose that **kn**, **gh**, were at once simplified, as **knight** was pronounced **k-n-i-h-t** as late as 1567 and **known** with a **k** in 1621. These last changes belong to the time of the Civil War or even later.

The changes of these latter periods are illustrated by the following examples from Ellis's Early English Pronunciation, *a* being pronounced as in **father**, *æ* as in **at**, *ee* like **eh**, *i* like the modern **ee**, *y* like the Fr. *u*, *aa* like **awe**, *au* like **ou** in **sound**.

CHAUCER.	SPENSER	DRYDEN.	GOLDSMITH.	1887.
<i>hand</i>	<i>hand</i>	<i>hænd</i>	<i>hænd</i>	<i>hænd</i> spelt <b>hand</b> ;
<i>taa-le</i>	<i>taal</i>	<i>tæel</i>	<i>teel</i>	<i>teel</i> " <b>tale</b> ;
<i>sau</i>	<i>saa</i>	<i>saa</i>	<i>saa</i>	<i>saa</i> " <b>saw</b> ;
<i>seen</i>	<i>siin</i>	<i>stin</i>	<i>siin</i>	<i>siin</i> " <b>seen</b> ;
<i>meen</i>	<i>meen</i>	<i>meen</i>	<i>miin</i>	<i>miin</i> " <b>mean</b> ;
<i>biit</i>	<i>beit</i>	<i>beit</i>	<i>beit</i>	<i>beit</i> " <b>bite</b> ;
<i>myy-se</i>	<i>myyz</i>	<i>myyz</i>	<i>meuz</i>	<i>meuz</i> " <b>muse</b> .

#### SYLLABICATION.

13. Owing to the defects of our alphabet, it is impossible to lay down consistent rules for the division of words into syllables. We have already shown that, in pronouncing a stopped consonant, the sound is heard only when the contact of the organs is broken. Hence, the progress is from a shut to an open position of the organs, that is, from consonant to vowel, not from vowel to consonant. It follows, then, that a consonant between two vowels belongs to the latter, and that we should divide **gable**, for example, into **ga-ble**, not into **gab-le**. But, as we have no special signs for short sounds, these, when accented, are usually indicated by doubling the sign of the following consonant, as in **gabble**, which we, therefore, syllable **gab-ble**, as if the sound of



b were heard twice, which, however, is not the case. This practice has given rise to the notion that a short vowel has more to do with the following consonant than has a long one, a mistake which leads to such divisions as *cab-in*, *chap-el* for *ca-bin*, *cha-gel*; as if a short vowel could not end a syllable, though we know it can end a word, as in *America*, *happy*. The fact is that a short vowel is affected as much as a long one by the following consonant, and no more. Of course, if more consonants than one come between two vowels and cannot all be sounded by one effort, the first must be taken with the first vowel, just as in the case of a consonant ending a word, the slight vowel-sounds caused by opening the organs, being disregarded. Further, it is reasonable to take notice of the significant elements of which compound words are made up. Hence we may deviate from the natural phonetic division of words and write

**in-sub-or-di-nate, in-ad-e-quate, writ-er, walk-er.**

Generally speaking, however, the syllabication of words is empirical and determined by the systems of particular printers.

### THE PRINCIPLE OF EASE IN PHONETICS.

14. We have seen (IV. 43) that one great cause of changes in the sounds of a language is the wish to avoid trouble, and that this often takes the form of indistinct articulation, the result being the substitution of easier for more difficult sounds. From what has already been said of the principles of phonetics, we can now see what are easy and what are difficult sounds, and why they are so:

a. Spirants, as they do not require perfect contact of the organs of speech, are evidently easier sounds than stops. Hence the change of the sound of *c* (=k) to *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y*, and of *-tion* to *-shun*; and also such substitutions as

*v* for *b* in *have*, *live*, *heave* (O. E. *habban*, *libban*, *hebban*);

*sh* for *sc* in *shield*, *shoot* (O. E. *scýld*, *sceot-an*)—compare *shabby* and *scabby*;

*th* for *d* or *t* in *father*, *hither*, *lath* (O. E. *fæder*, *hider*, *latta*).

b. Sounds produced far back in the mouth are apt to be changed into more forward sounds, the true place of contact being missed. Thus careless speakers say *runnin'* for *running*, it being easier to raise the tip than the back of the tongue. So, too, in passing from the *k* to the *t* position, we get the sound of *ch* in *child*, *ditch*, *cheap* (O. E. *cild*, *dician* [ep. *dike*], *ceap*). Hence also for *gh* (O. E. *h*) we pronounce *f* in *rough*, *tough*, *laugh*, thus substituting a labial for a guttural spirant.

c. Vowels undergo like changes. Thus, what we now pronounce *a* and *ee* were once *ah* and *eh*, and the vowel sound which once was *a* in *father* is changed into more forward vowels in pronouncing *tale*, *at*, *all*; *a* is changed in spelling also into *from*, *load*, *burst*, *pebble* (O. E. *fram*, *ladan*, *barst*, *papol*); and in *hurricane*, stands for *a* of the Spanish *huracan*. In like manner, *sea* and *seen* were once *say* (as still in Ireland, where it is a survival), *sayn*; while *blood* was at first *blōd* (*o*=*oa*), then *blood* (*oo* as in *food*). In all these cases we have a change either from a vowel sounded in the back part, to one sounded in the front part of the mouth, or from a vowel sounded with greater to one with less opening of the mouth.

We have also seen (IV. 43) that sounds coming in immediate succession tend to grow more like each other. ASSIMILATION as this has been called, has been illustrated chiefly as it affects groups of consonants. But vowels sometimes affect neighboring consonants, and are also affected by them. Thus the *a* sounded in *clerk* and *sergeant* is due to the following *r*. Often, however, a voiceless consonant gains from a preceding or following vowel the vibration that makes it voiced. Thus, careless speakers say *Prodestant* for *Protestant*, and so *Patrick* has been shortened to *Paddy*. In this way also *g*, *d*, *b*, *v* arise from *k*, *t*, *p*, *f*, as in

**dig**, **pride**, **dribble**, **love** (O. E. *dycian*, *pryte*, *drip*, *lufian*);

and (see also V. 36. a.)

**loaves**, **leaves**, **thieves**, from **loaf**, **leaf**, **thief**.

Here also belongs the pronunciation of *s* like *zh* or *z* in *pleasures*.

### GRIMM'S LAW.

15. Thus far we have considered changes in sound in the same language. We have now to notice some important facts respecting the correspondence of sounds in languages of the same family.

It will readily be understood that dialects once differing but little from each other, as, for example, Dorset which puts *z* and *v* for *s* and *f* of standard English, and York-

shire, may in time become so unlike as to be classed as separate languages. Yet it would be found that when one of such languages had a certain sound, the other had the same sound, or one nearly like it, and that what differences there were would be regular, not capricious. Now all who study German notice that, while some words are almost the same as those in English: thus

Ger. *Haus, Maus, Mann*; Eng. house, mouse, man;  
others differ slightly, as

Ger. *denn, drei, Ding.* Eng. thin, three, thing;  
" *zu, zunge, zwei, Wasser*; " to, tongue, two, water.

This difference distinguishes High German from English (and other Teutonic languages), while its regularity proves a common origin for both.

But we find a similar relation between the sounds of English and other Teutonic languages, and Latin, Greek, Celtic, etc. Thus to

Latin.	<i>tres, tenuis, dentis, duo, fendo, fores,</i>
Greek.	<i>treis, tanys, o-dont-os, dyo, theino, thyra,</i>
English.	<i>three, thin, tooth's, two, dint, door.</i>

So, too, with gutturals and labials: thus, for example,

Latin.	<i>caput cord-is genus ager hortus</i>
Greek.	<i>kephale kardia-s genos agros chortos</i>
English.	<i>head heart's kin acre yard (O. E. gearð)</i>
Latin.	<i>pater ped-is fu-i fer-o frater</i>
Greek.	<i>pater pod-os phy-o fer-o phrater</i>
English.	<i>father foot's be bear brother.</i>

Consequently,

To Lat. or Gr.	<i>c(k) p t</i>	answer the English	<i>h f th</i> ;
" "	<i>h(ch) f(ph), f(th)</i>	"	<i>g b d</i> ;
" "	<i>g d</i>	"	<i>k(c) t.</i>

This important fact is known, from the name of its discoverer, as GRIMM'S LAW. It may be easily remembered and applied by means of the following mnemonic words:

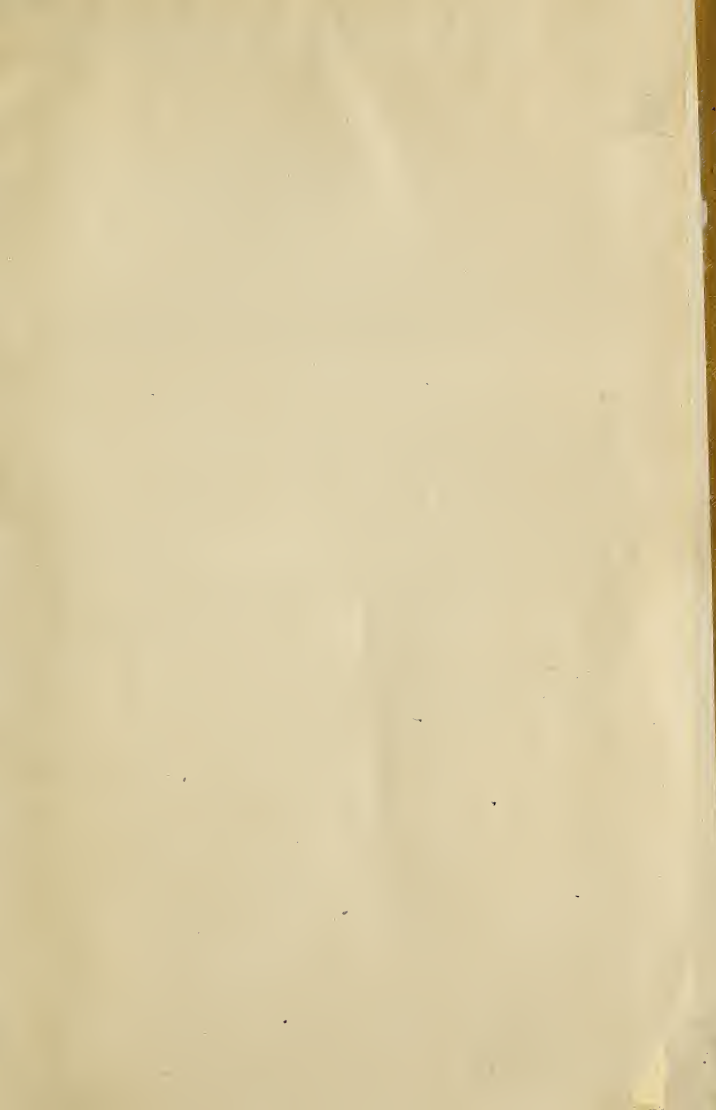
C a r P e T  
H u F F e T H  
G a r B l e D  
K n o T.

To find the sound in English corresponding to a given Latin sound, look for the given Latin sound in these words and the required English sound will be found immediately below. Thus, the *c* of *canis* is found in CarPeT, and under it is found the corresponding letter *h* of *hound*. So the *g* of *gnosco* is found in GarBleD, and under it the *k* of *know*. Conversely, by taking the word that contains a given English sound, as *d* of *dust*, we find the corresponding Gr. as *th* of *thy-os*, "incense," while the sound *F* of HuFFeTH, gives the Lat. *f* of *fumus*, "smoke," Latin using *f* instead of initial *th*. The following table presents additional illustrations:

C, P, T.	Lat. <i>cornu</i>	<i>clu-o</i>	<i>ple-nus</i>	<i>ta-bes</i>	<i>torque-o.</i>
	Gr. <i>ker-as</i>	<i>kly-o</i>	<i>ple-res</i>	<i>pyr</i>	<i>te-ko</i>
H, F, TH.	Eng. <i>horn</i>	<i>loud (O.E. hlud)</i>	<i>full</i>	<i>fire</i>	<i>thaw</i>
				<i>throw.</i>	
H, F, TH.	Lat. <i>fu-tis</i>	<i>pre-hend-o</i>	<i>fa-ma</i>	<i>flo-s</i>	<i>of-fend-o</i>
	Gr. <i>chy-ma</i>	<i>chand-ano</i>	<i>pho-ne</i>	<i>phlo-os</i>	<i>thein-o</i>
E, B, D.	Eng. <i>gu-sh</i>	<i>get</i>	<i>ban</i>	<i>bloom</i>	<i>din-t</i>
				<i>dare.</i>	
G, D.	Lat. <i>gran-um</i>	<i>gelu</i>	<i>viv-o (=gwigv-o)</i>	<i>gust-o</i>	<i>dom-o</i>
	Gr.		<i>bio-s (=gvio-s)</i>	<i>geu-o</i>	<i>(D)jov-is.</i>
K, T.	Eng. <i>corn</i>	<i>cold</i>	<i>quick</i>	<i>choose</i>	<i>dama-o</i>
				<i>tame</i>	<i>Di-os.</i>
				<i>kiss</i>	<i>Tues-day.</i>

This relation, it should, however, be remembered, holds good for those words that form a part of the original stock of each language, not for borrowed words; chiefly for initial letters, assimilations interfering with it in the case of medial and final consonants; not, however, in the case of *st*, *sp*, *sc*: thus compare,

Latin.	<i>stare spernere,</i>	Eng.	<i>stand, spurn,</i>
Greek.	<i>skia,</i>	Eng.	<i>sky (O. N. sky "a cloud.")</i>





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